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AUSTRIA AND HUNGARY.

HISTORY seldom works itself out with the visible unity and dramatic consistency which may be discerned in the pending controversy between Austria and Hungary. The open suspension of all national liberties, by the proclamation of martial law, has long been foreseen as the inevitable consequence of the rash and insincere policy of the Imperial Government. After the disasters of 1859, the Emperor Francis Joseph wished to recover, or to cultivate, the loyal attachment which had so often saved his predecessors in their extremity. Ten years of lawless tyranny were succeeded by a period of relaxation, and, almost beyond reasonable expec tation, the statesmen of Hungary showed themselves ready to reconcile their countrymen to the dynasty which had done its utmost to forfeit their allegiance. While exiled demaits utmost to forfeit their allegiance. While exiled demagogues declaimed against the anticipated perfidy of Austria, the true leaders of the nation resolved to try, in the face of the world, an experiment which must result either in the recovery of their rights or in a demonstration of the justice of future resistance. Their diplomacy consisted in an undisguised avowal of demands which, from their very contract when the recented or rejected as a whole. The an unusus a vowal of demands which, from their very nature, must be accepted or rejected as a whole. The Court of Vienna was, from the first, distinctly informed that concession and compromise were wholly inapplicable to a question of legal right. The de facto ruler of Hungary had to choose between the military occupation of a usurped dominion and the resumption of the constitutional title which his ancestors had received under definite limitations. necessary, above all things, that he should submit to the ancient ceremony of coronation, and especially to the preliminary condition of the Royal oath. The acts of the interregnum were essentially invalid, although they might in cortain cases he ratified by subsequent legislation. The precedent of the last century governed the present case; for Joseph II., in his mistaken zeal for theoretical reforms, had evaded the constitutional form which could alone make him rightful King of HUNGARY. His successor, LEOPOLD, was compelled not only to swear to the Hungarian Constitution, but to acknowledge that Joseph had not even been able to confer a valid title of nobility. Francis Joseph might, without degradation, have treated the first ten years of his own administration as an irregular anomaly. Above all, he ought to have perceived that the Hungarians were not discussing the terms of a bargain, but pointing out the inevitable consequences of a principle which they could never abandon. By the acceptance of the legal Constitution, the King of HUNGARY would, in his turn, have entered into the full possession of every Royal prerogative. If compromise and arrangement were found advisable, negotiations between the Government and the nation might have been afterwards conducted on an intelligible basis with much probability of

It is highly probable that the Hungarian leaders were from the first convinced that their experiment was hopeless. The bad faith which the enemies of Austria impute to the House of Hapsburg might perhaps be more leniently and accurately defined as obstinate narrowness. The system of absolute government was renounced, and representative institutions were framed on a plausible model, but the Emperor and his advisers seemed incapable of understanding that the need of the time was not liberalism, but justice. The newfangled Council of the Empire might be satisfactory to the subjects of the German States, but the interference of an assembly which contained a preponderating foreign element was, to the Hungarians, even more obnoxious and offensive than simple Austrian despotism. The Emperor Francis Joseph was, in a certain sense, their king, and he might complete his title by complying with the legal conditions of the tenure; but the representatives of Styria, of Carinthia,

and of the Tyrol, were, in the affairs of the Kingdom, merely intruding strangers. The Austrian Minister may perhaps be excused for making the offer of a share in the Federal representation, but he ought to have understood that the first refusal was definitive and final. No hesitation or inconsistency on the part of M. Deak and his political associates has at any time furnished an excuse for the futile attempt to counteract their firm resolution by alternate menaces and concessions. It was only when a trivial point of form was raised into a subject of dispute, that the Diet consented, without a moment's hesitation, to alter the direction of the address to the Emperor. The substance of the national demands has never been amplified or retrenched, from the commencement of the negotiations to the ultimate rupture. The consequent unanimity of the nation, the sympathy of all who understand historical freedom, and, above all, the consciousness of an irrefragable cause, more than compensate for a delay which could in any case scarcely have been employed in active resistance to oppression.

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The good-will of intelligent Englishmen could by no other method have been so effectually secured. The vague, popular dislike of absolute monarchy could weigh little against the serious perils which threaten the balance of power in Europe. There is a shadow of foundation for Mr. Roesuck's extravagant Austrian partisanship, and there is a solid justification for the anti-Gallican opinions of Mr. Kinglake. Austria has been the natural ally of England, because her safety depended on vigilance against the ambition of France and the encroachments of Russia. Any wanton revolt against her Government—even a revolutionary agitation against the undue power of the Crown—would have been regarded in this country with jealousy and distaste, as impairing the strength of a friendly State. It is only when the Austrian Government itself becomes the promoter of revolution that thoughtful politicians unwillingly abandon a cause which is at the same time unjust and hopeless. It becomes every day more obvious that the balance of power must be readjusted; and there is reason to hope that the new system will furnish additional means of resistance to the cupidity of the more rapacious Governments and populations. France is, too probably, preparing a second rupture with Austria, with the undisguised purpose of appropriating the left bank of the Rhine. Hungary and Italy cannot be blamed for accepting the aid of a protector, and little reliance can be placed on the firmness or wisdom of Prussia. The traditional policy of England will be hampered by sympathy for the nations which seek to establish their own freedom by co-operating with a selfish conqueror. A revolutionary policy in Hungary, by alienating the sympathy of England, would probably have opposed insuperable obstacles to the active interference of France. It is fortunately not the interest of aggressive Powers to call new and vigorous nations into existence. An Italy of twenty-fou

The actual news from Hungary requires little comment. The County Assemblies are suppressed, the Lieutenants of Counties are dismissed, the Diet itself had been previously dissolved, and martial law is established in all parts of the kingdom. The Austrian Government must be mad if it hopes to maintain such a system, and, notwithstanding some meaningless phrases in the Imperial letter to Count Forgach, madder still if it expects to relax it with impunity. All the work of two years has been swept away at one stroke, and no statesman will be so idle as to recommence it. It is to no purpose that apologists may find

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excuses for Austrian violence, The crime may for the moment be forgotten in the prolonged and stupendous blunder. As if to render the incapacity of the Government more conspicuous, care has been taken to advertise the concurrence of the Roman Catholic clergy in the national resistance to usurpation. The highest ecclesiastical dignitary, the Cardinal Primate of Hungary, has been summoned to Vienna to answer for his participation in the patriotic oppo-sition of his countrymen. The only portion of the Continent sition of his countrymen. which still possesses an endowed aristocratic hierarchy also stands alone in the union of the Roman Catholic clergy with the laity and with the dissident communities. The reign of military despotism will endure until foreign war furnishes an opportunity of shaking off for ever both the temporary usurpation and the incorrigible dynasty. To the Hungarian leaders, the state of siege is not a disappointment or a check, but a necessary stage in the contest which they have deliberately contemplated and prepared.

AMERICA AND ENGLAND.

THE Americans of the Northern Federation will regard with great satisfaction their acknowledged triumph in the recent diplomatic squabble. Lord Lyons took the wrong opportunity for writing an extraordinarily weak despatch, and Mr. Seward profited by the occasion to display a remarkable superiority in rhetoric, and even in grammar. The Secretary of State has the more reason to be proud of his controversial victory, because, on the point which ought to have been in issue, he was undeniably in the wrong. Whatever may be the law of the United States, foreign residents in the country are assuredly entitled to its benefits. a dispute arises on the application of the law in a particular case, the Foreign Minister who prefers a complaint and the representative of the native Government are equally bound by the Statute-book or the Constitution. It is unfortunate that Lord Lyons or Lord Russell should have enabled Mr. SEWARD to confuse one of the plainest propositions of international law, by mixing it up with his contemptuous rejection of an ill-timed remonstrance. Two English subjects had been arrested on grounds of reasonable suspicion, and one of them was shortly afterwards discharged, and the other released upon bail. At a time when the whole population of the Northern States has practically approved of the suspension of the Constitution, it seems highly indiscreet to complain of a slight irregularity in a process where English subjects have not been treated with exceptional rigour. It was especially absurd to object to the practical suspension of the Habeas Corpus in cases where no application had been made for the issue of the writ. Mr. SEWARD was justified in resenting an indecorous attempt to distinguish between the respective powers of the PRESIDENT and of the Congress, nor was it fitting that the opinion of the English law officers should be cited in an appeal to the language of the Federal constitution. The English Minister, if any interference was constitution. The English Minister, it any interference was necessary, ought simply to have suggested, for the information of the President, that two English subjects had been imprisoned in violation of the law. If the Secretary of State justified the arrest, it might have been proper to argue the legal question, but the discussion ought to have been strictly confined to the special ground of complaint. Lord Lyons's despatch raises a question as to the legality of domestic proceedings which only concern American citizens and their Government. It is undoubtedly true that the Constitution has been systematically violated, and it is strange that Mr. SEWARD should assert, on behalf of the PRESIDENT, a preroga tive which has never been claimed by the British Crown. If, however, the people of the Northern States are willing to acquiesce in measures of revolutionary vigour, foreign residents must, to a certain extent, take the consequences of their choice of a domicile. If any distinction were made to the detriment of Englishmen, or if any cruel severity were practised against them by the Government, it would be the duty of the English Minister to protect his countrymen. In the present instance, he has exposed himself to a deserved rebuff, and Mr. Seward is not the man to throw away an opportunity for insult and defiance. A statesman of any other country would have been contented with his argumentative success. In the United States, an awkwardness or an oversight becomes a sufficient cause for an immediate menace of

Having administered to Lord Lyons a merited rap on the knuckles, the SECRETARY of STATE thought it expedient to nrge upon the Governors of all the border States the pro-

priety of defending the coasts and frontiers against invasion by a foreign enemy. The cost, however great, could not be grudged when it was necessary for public security, and the State Government might safely rely on the willingness of Congress to repay any expenditure which might be incurred. The circular was, of course, universally understood according to its true intention, as an intimation of impending war with England; and though the proposed fortifications would be utterly superfluous and useless, the President and his organ may fairly be acquitted on the charge of pecuniary extravagance. The Governors of States and the Cabinet of Washington are equally aware that, even if a rupture should occur, there is not the smallest risk of an Euglish invasion. Neither Mr. SEWARD nor Governor Morgan will lay out a dollar on bricks and mortar, or on sea-coast batteries; but the advertisement of readiness to go to war with England has produced its effect in gratifying the national vanity and animosity. One of those singular Englishmen who affect to outdo the Americans themselves in partisan violence announces, in the correspondence of the Morning Star, that some members of the Cabinet think that Mr. Seward has been too forbearing in his treatment of the provocation afforded by Lord LYONS. The wolf is delighted to discover that the lamb has at last unintentionally stirred up so much sand as to discolour the stream for a moment. It will be prudent to remember that it is only by long-continued and inoffensive endurance that England has acquired the character of the lamb, while America has displayed the fierce injustice rather than the comparative strength of the wolf.

The division of labour between the two members of the typical firm of fiction is well known in real life as well as in While the good-looking and benevolent partner conciliates the sympathies of the general community, his associate keeps up the character of a thorough-going and unprejudiced man of business. Mr. Theodore FAY does good service to the common cause by satisfying European philanthropists that the Federal arms are employed in the special fulfilment of prophesy through the abolition of slavery. Admitting, with unusual candour, that England has formerly had some ground of complaint against the United States, Mr. FAY explains that the incessant vituperation of the press, and the insolent aggression of the Federal Government, were uniformly inspired by Southern influence. A captious opponent might reply that Englishmen can scarcely wish to see Southern politicians, if they are so bitterly hostile to their country, restored to their former share in the councils of the Union; but condown requires the calculation of the Union; but candour requires the acknowledgment that no accession of slave-owners could affect the feeling and conduct of the Federalists for the worse. As soon as the Cotton States seceded, the first thought of the residuary patriots was to snatch the opportunity of enacting a prohibitive tariff. It was not until precautions had been taken against an invasion of English manufactures that Massachusetts and Pennsylvania were at leisure to think of war with the seceders. From that time to the present, Northern politicians of all parties have vied with one another in a virulent abuse of England, which was assuredly not exceeded in the palmy days of the yet undivided Republic. The pretexts which Mr. FAY and other apologists assign for the shameful folly of their countrymen are almost too absurd shameful folly of their countrymen are almost too absurd and frivolous for discussion. The English Government, before the blockade was instituted or declared, announced that Southern privateers were not to be treated as pirates. Shortly afterwards, all the ports of the Empire were closed to the traffic in prizes; and from that time to the date of Lord Lyons' unlucky despatch, even American sensi-tiveness has failed to discover a single ground of complaint or remonstrance against the Government. the declaration of neutrality had been justly open to censure, the Cabinet of Washington, as well as the whole nation, is estopped from raising an objection by the uniform satisfaction which has been expressed with the identical policy of France. The English and French Governments have taken every step in common, and in general they have adopted the same phrases in their communications; yet one Power has been the object of servile deference, while the other has been exposed to every variety of reproach and of menace. It is well known that France is only restrained from opening the blockade by the refusal of England to concur in an unjustifiable interference and not England to concur in an unjustifiable interference, and yet Mr. SEWARD affects to think that the Northern frontier ought to be fortified against an invasion from Canada.

The charge that the English press has generally regarded

the separation as final is perfectly well founded in fact, while,

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as a justification for noisy abuse, it is scarcely worthy of a passionate child. The event will show whether foreign observers or native enthusiasts have formed the more accurate judgment. Up to the present time, the uniform bad success of the Federal troops has been watched in England with unaffected surprise. It is far from improbable that the forwith unaffected surprise. It is far from improbable that the for-tune of war may hereafter change; and it is even conceivable that the Federal armies may so far succeed as to take military possession of the South. The only positive opinion of prudent English writers has been confined to the political results which must follow even in the event of a Federal triumph. It is impossible that the friendship and equal co-operation of the Southern Americans should be re-conquered by force; and, if the Union is to be reconstituted, the future Republic can by no possibility be governed under the old Constitution. If a judgment which commends itself to all European understandings is unacceptable in America, a theoretical difference of opinion is not a reason for war. If a schoolboy finds that his former friend refuses to play with him or to speak to him, it is perfectly natural that he should chal-lenge him to fight. The more experienced bystander reflects that a black eye or bloody nose will scarcely revive extinct affection, and possibly he may also doubt whether the assailant is more than a match for his adversary. That an angry boy should resent a quiet caution is intelligible and pardonable. Great nations, or those who guide their judgments, are expected to be calmer and wiser. The estimate which is formed of the chances of the contest is independent of sympathy with slavery or with freedom. If the war were really directed to abolition, it would be generally popular in England, though it might still be regarded by dispassionate observers as impolitic. At present, the sanctimonious assurances of the philanthropic principal lose something of their effect when they are compared with the precisely opposite declaration of the practical partner who is actually managing the business beyond the Atlantic.

COTTON PROSPECTS.

T may seem inopportune to speak hopefully of the prospects of the cotton manufacture at a time when a winter of half-time and half-wages, or possibly less than that, seems to be before the industrious population of Lancashire. Already half of the Manchester mills are working short time, and the daily production is probably some thirty per cent. below its average at this time of the year. The deficiency of the supply of raw material would be quite enough to account for this reduction in consumption; but the suffering which will inevitably be entailed upon the many hands who will be whell or working the third work of the third way. be wholly or partially thrown out of work is not due to this cause alone. The markets of the world were glutted with Manchester goods at the time when the American war put a sudden stop to the supply of cotton, and even if the material were to be had in unlimited abundance, the absence of a sufficient demand for all that Lancashire could produce would itself suffice to bring down the rate of production to something like its present standard. A striking proof that the want of a market has almost as much to do with the stagnation of this branch of industry as the scarcity of material, is to be found in the comparative prices of manufactured and un-manufactured cotton. Both, of course, have risen in value since the blockade of the American ports, but the addition to the price of cotton goods is said to be not more than half the increase in the price of cotton. Notwithstanding a slight check during the last week, the course of the Liverpool market has, as might have been expected, been steadily upward. Raw cotton is worth fivepence per pound more than in March, the stocks of American cotton are rapidly falling, and it might have been expected that a pound of manufactured cotton would have been enhanced in value to nearly the same extent. This has not been the case, and it is some consolation to know that at no time could the American supply have been cut off with so little injury to our trade as at a time when warehouses were filled with an unexampled supply of manufactured produce. Though this will bring no relief to the chief sufferers, who depend on the factories for their daily bread, it will mitigate the pressure on the country at large which so violent a disturbance of its staple manufacture cannot but produce.

If a misfortune can ever be termed opportune, there are other reasons for looking upon the American war as particularly well-timed, so far as English interests are concerned. India has fortunately so far tided through her crisis of financial diffioulty as to be able to respond with wonderful energy to the

new demand which is made upon her. The Government no longer professes to be too poor to engage in the necessary works for opening up the cotton districts, and the last accounts make it certain that the stimulus of increased profits has already largely added to the area of cotton cultivation. Roads and railways, riversand canals, are being opened to traffic, if not as fast as we in England should desire, at any rate with sufficient vigour to ensure a considerable increase in the next crop. Even now, before this incentive could have had time to work, a very marked increase is observable both in the stocks of Indian cotton already in this country, and in the cargoes which are on their way. At this season the Atlantic should be covered with on her way to Liverpool from the blockaded ports, the deficiency is counterbalanced, so far as quantity is concerned, by the additional importations from India and elsewhere. It is true that the bulk of the Indian cotton is less profitable to spinners, and will not produce goods equal either in quantity or quality to the produce of the American staple; but the promised supply is enough to reduce the absolute dearth which was at one time feared to a scarcity which may be borne without utter prostration to the manufactures of the country. Those who take the least hopeful view of the Indian supply calculate on a large and continuous increase, and it is not improbable that the most sanguine anticipations may be exceeded. The capabilities of India are by no means limited to the extra quantity of cotton which she may be induced to grow to meet our necessities. The enormous crop which is ordinarily worked up in the country itself will yield abundant supplies to Manchester whenever the price in England is high enough to countervail the expenses of transport. We have seen the price rise 50 per cent. within a few months, and every mail from India tells us of the efforts which are being made to diminish the difficulties, the delays, and the cost of transit. And there is in this a double ground of hope. The same roads and rivers which bring cotton down will serve equally well to take calico up. There is no reason to doubt that the native manufacture will be largely trans-There is no reason ferred to English factories in every district which is rendered accessible to our trade. It will pay better for both countries to make this division of labour, and nothing but the obstacles of an impenetrable country could have prevented the produce of English factories from having long since supplanted the productions of native looms. This has taken place wherever reasonable facilities of transit exist, and the banks of navigable rivers and canals are visibly distinguished from the less approachable districts by the proportion of European manufactures which the natives wear. A market of enormous extent will be opened by the same means which will place the cotton of India within our reach, and the supply to be looked for will perhaps be developed as much by the re-duction of the native demand for the raw material as by the increased growth of the precious commodity.

One fear only seems to prevent the Indian supply from pringing up with all the elasticity which we could desire. This is not the first year that Indian cultivators have been tempted by high prices to speculate largely in cotton cultivation; and if the crop which is stored in the interior of the Southern States of America were to be suddenly set free by the chances of war or by the restoration of peace, the Indian ryot would receive a poor return for the alacrity with which he has responded to our call. Until quite recently, a very confident expectation was freely expressed that, in spite of war and blockade, it was impossible that millions of bales of cotton could remain in America for which English manufacturers were ready to give unheard-of prices. All experience seemed to warrant this slighting estimate of the efficiency of a blockade, but the wholesale smuggling which was predicted has not yet commenced; and, whether from stern determination or want of power, the planters still keep their cotton on the estates where it was grown. In the end, it cannot but prove advantageous to England that the stoppage of the American supply should be thus complete, and nothing can be more short sighted than the cry raised in some quarters, that the blockade should be broken, in defiance of international law, for the sake of giving immediate relief to our manufacturers. Our dependence upon America had reached a point so alarming that almost any remedy, howeversevere, appears preferable to its continuance; and the entire success of the embargo laid upon the trade by the navy of the United States was probably essential to establish the Indian trade upon a sound and permanent footing. Nothing less

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than the calamity of one year's dearth could have sufficed to transfer so vast a branch of commerce from one country to another; and if this should be achieved, the benefit to England and India will have been purchased cheaply. It may be said that we are too sanguine in looking to such a result—that the war must, sooner or later, come to an end when the resources of one or both sides are exhausted, and that the slave produce of the American States will drive the crops of India out of the European market as it always has done. But this assumes that the cost of producing Indian cotton and the quality of the article will be unaffected by the change which has come over the trade; and to believe this would be to doubt all economical experience. Give India but time enough, and she will be able to compete with any rivals. Her soil and climate are as favourable as those of the planting States. Her labour is certainly not more costly than slave labour. The quality of her crops is already being improved by the introduction of foreign seed; and when once the artificial barrier created by the neglect of her material means of communication has been removed, there seems to be no reason to doubt of a steady and rapid im-provement in her cultivation of the coveted staple. This, at least, is the uniform t nor of all the information which mail after mail has recently brought; and if there is any substantial ground of alarm, it is only lest the Americans should return to the ways of peaceful commerce before India has had time to strengthen herself sufficiently for the competition which will await her at the close of the war. sudden peace at this moment would perhaps blow to the winds all that has been done in India; but one more year may entirely alter the complexion of affairs, and the probabilities do not look very great of any immediate termination of the struggle in which the Americans are engaged. The sation of the war would no doubt bring immense relief to this country, but the immediate evil of its continuance will be more than compensated if, as may now be fairly which has so long hung like a dark cloud over our commercial prospects. Now that her time of trouble is past, Ireland ren. embers that her prosperity dates from the famine year; and in future times it is possible that the year of the great states and on the famine year; cotton dearth may become as important an epoch in the commoreial history both of England and of India.

SYMPTOMS OF UNEASINESS IN EUROPE.

THERE can be no doubt that more distrust and uneasiness are felt on the Continent now than at any time since the peace of Villafranca. There has always been reason to apprehend that a war ended so hastily might be resumed at any moment, and Italy has never ceased to speak of Austria as an enemy with whom it would be disgraceful and impossible to make a lasting peace. It was evident that it might suit the Emperor of the French some time or other to satisfy the thirst of his army for new campaigns. A host of minor difficulties is perpetually rising which might easily be turned into occasions of war; and if people want to fight, there is always sure to be a Montenegrin quarrel, or something going on in Schleswig, or the valley of Dappes, that will do to fight about. Recently, too, there have been signs of intestine strife and division in Austria and Russia which might be taken to indicate that Europe is heaving with that vague agitation which is the forerunner of a great eruption. But the uneasiness that now pervades the Continent chiefly springs from a much more serious and definite The Continent generally is disturbed because France is known to be gloomy and unsettled. For the first time since he shook himself well into the seat of Empire, Louis Napoleon has to encounter domestic discontent. A bad harvest presses heavily on the poor, and the malcontents of the large towns are irritated at once by the privations which they suffer or anticipate, and by their own impotence to contend with a master who has put an end to barricades. French society generally is paying the penalty of having lived too handsomely and spent too much. The Government cannot come to the rescue, for it has been the great leader and example of splendid extravagance, and loans repeated year after year in time of peace are sure to shake the credit of any country. The indecision of the EMPEROR's foreign policy has raised him up a host of furious enemies, without securing him the support of zealous friends. Ecclesiastic France bitterly resents, and liberal France watches with apathy, the shifts and turns of his protracted hesitation. From all these difficulties, or at any rate from the

most pressing, war would free him, and nothing else is likely to do so; and it is this that makes Europe very natulikely to do so; and it is this that makes Europe very naturally apprehensive. A war would enable the French Government to effect a loan large enough to pay for other things besides war; it would give the stone of military glory to those who are crying for bread; it would find occupation for the workmen of the large manufacturing towns; it would bury opposition under the common interest of watching the fortunes of the national armies; and if success attended the Emperor's arms, everything would be forgiven to a mam who enlarged the boundaries of France and cut a new slice off the territories of his neighbours. The priests would have to bow before him, like every one else, and he might have to bow before him, like every one else, and he might order the Pope to retire finally to the "worship of ruins" as soon as he pleased. Italy, it is said, has already been called on to arm, and

has avowedly been denied Rome in order that she may con-centrate her attention on Venetia. The arbiter of her fate bids her furnish him lavishly with men and money, call out all her soldiers, and strain the resources of the country to challenge Austria in arms. If once it is understood that Venice must come first, and that the Pope is to hold Rome for the present-and if the Italians are bidden to decide on peace or war, to join France in an attack on Austria next spring, or lose what may be the only opportunity of gaining Venetia that Italians of this generation will have offered them—it is impossible for them to hesitate; No Government could hold office if it decided on peace at such a crisis. The party of action might turn into the party of revolution, and the stately fabric of Italian monarchy might melt away in a moment like a palace of ice. It is true that, if Italy were asked to pay too high a price for French help—if the King's Ministers were asked to forswear themselves, and to cede any further portion of the sacred soil of Italy—they might appeal to their countrymen not to drive them into a ruinous and dishonourable bargain by demanding a hasty and ill-timed war. It is equally true that, although the Austrians may be unable to repeat the triumphs of RADETZKY and overrun Italy, their Italian adversaries, unassisted, could have no reasonable hope of driving them out of the Quadrilateral. But it is by no means improbable that no cession of Italian soil would be the stipulated price of victory, and that the Italians might do all they are meant to do without actually forcing the great barrier of Austria on the Mincio and the Adige. There is every reason to suppose that this time the French will attack Austria, not in Italy, but on the Danube. The Italians might easily succeed in detaining at least two hundred thousand men in the Quadrilateral and Venetia, and this would leave Austria very weak at home. But this is not all. Hungary would exhaust Austria in the rear as much as But this is not all. Itungary would exhaust Austria in the rear as much as Italy would exhaust and occupy her on her flank. It is difficult, indeed, to see how the Hungarians can actually rise in arms so long as there are plenty of soldiers, provided with all the munitions of war, to keep guard over them. The most heroic people in the world cannot venture, unarmed, to confront disciplined troops supported by artillery; but Hungary can hurt Austria almost as much by detaining a large force to guard her as if she as much by detaining a large force to guard her as if she could drive this force away. With Hungary and Italy to use up her strength, she might fall an easy prey to a French army advancing on Vienna. These would all be vague possibilities and idle speculations were it not for the state of France; but when a military ruler has every domestic motive to urge him to begin a war somewhere, and when it happens that a neighbour presents so many promising grounds of attack as Austria does, vague uneasiness begins to assume a definite form; and most Continental politicians who venture to speak what they think, seem to agree that no event is more probable than a war between France and Austria next spring, when the French will make straight for Vienna, and an extension of France towards the Rhine is to be the prize of victory, with Venetia offered to Italy as the reward for crippling Austria of half her strength.

Generally, speculations about possible wars are mere waste of time, and only amuse pothouse politicians; but when the contingency of a war is treated as so probable by those who would be most concerned in it, bystanders may be ex pected to consider whether they agree in thinking that it is coming. Now, it would greatly lessen the likelihood of an attack by Louis Angoleon on Austria if there were any signs that Germany would heartily oppose him, or that the strong disapprobation of England might make him pause. But it is more than doubtful whether the South Germans

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hen hose exit is f an the suse nans would do anything effectual to stop his progress. Bavaria, which is far the most important State between France and Austria, owes most of her greatness to the First NAPOLEON, and would gain greatly in position if Austria were humbled. The Austrian army is as unfit to oppose French troops well led as it was on the day after Solferino. Prussia alone could fight, and perhaps would fight. But Prussia has hitherto always temporized at the beginning of wars, and Louis Napoleon might have got all he wanted before the sort of men who form the Cabinet of Berlin could make up their minds under what circumstances and on what conditions they ought to act. Excellent terms, too, are sure to be offered if the Emperor of the FRENCH can but get what he wants—a little glory, and a little territory, and a good deal of money. So Prussia may be induced to sheath her sword almost as soon as she has drawn it. We must also sword almost as soon as she has drawn it. We must also acknowledge that the Emperor would be singularly favoured by the present current of English opinion. There can be little doubt that a war to liberate Hungary and Venice would be highly popular here. Nine Englishmen out of ten would wish the French to win, and if it were known that payment was to be exacted on the Rhine and not in Italy, there would be no very deep regret. Far-seeing statesmen and the payment was that there is no adjust to a system of relandary would perceive that there is no ending to a system of plunder which seeks to employ an overpowering soldiery and to stave off the consequences of financial extravagance. But for the moment the attention of England would be directed rather to the delight of seeing Austria humbled and punished than to the sober calculation of remote consequences. The feeling of nations is as powerful as their reason, and the feeling which Austria is awakening in all free countries is one that may easily overbear every other consideration.

Austria is really the great enemy of peace. It is she that, by the scandal of her stupid and obstinate tyranny, drives men to wish her rule swept away at any price. When we hear that, throughout a vast country like Hungary, civil government is to cross and military tribunals are to be countigovernment is to cease and military tribunals are to be omni-potent merely because the people ask for their legal rights, we can scarcely expect any but the most calm and calculating of Englishmen to wish the hand of the avenger stayed, although the vengeance may be prompted by motives we should disown, and may tend in a direction which we regret.

CONSERVATIVES AND THE CONSERVATIVE REACTION.

THERE is undoubtedly some excuse for the uproariously good spirits displayed at the Conservative meetings. Though one Conservative candidate could not carry Plymouth, Though one Conservative candidate could not carry Plymouth, and another may not be able to carry Carlisle, there is obviously everywhere a facility in getting votes which must be a novelty to the tacticians of the Carlton. The party technically distinguished as Conservative is for the present obtaining all the benefit of a pronounced change of feeling in the middle classes, and the most confident of Liberals hesitates to predict he composition of the Cabinet which will be in power six months or a twelvement hence

power six months or a twelvemonth hence.

It may be doubted nevertheless whether an unquestionable alteration in the chances of elections indicates any veering of public sentiment towards the statesmen who will probably benefit by it. The remarkable feature of the Conservative reaction is, that it colours all shades of politics. It pervades public sentiment towards the statesmen who will probably benefit by it. The remarkable feature of the Conservative reaction is, that it colours all shades of politics. It pervades the Whigs and the Radicals—the always tepid and the once hot—while it warms up the Tory to fever heat. All the ancient common-places of Conservatism seem to have gained a footing in minds which disdained them before; and there are thousands of politicians on whom it seems to have dawned as quite a new truth that only proved abuses need reform, that change for change's sake is to be discouraged, and that the institutions of an old country must be tenderly handled. If the provincial elector who is undergoing these experiences transfers his vote from the Liberal to the Conservative side, it is infinitely oftener because he prefers the opinions professed in the addresses of the Conservative candidate than because he prefers the Parliament seemed to have been conceived in a spirit of almost infantine simplicity. But the country longs to be conscious that it is guided by a steady hand and as sure being the prefers the political biographics.

We have before observed on the singularity of the relation in which tastes and most infantine simplicity. But the country longs to be conscious that it is guided by a steady hand and as sure yeigen to the present of the prefers the political biographics.

We have before observed on the singularity of the relation in which they seem to be under a decided temptation to vote for the man who stands furthest off from Mr. Barghr. It does not, however, follow that they are distinctly conscious of the ultimate consequences of their verdict, or that the polls would exhibits quite the same result if the elector looked forward to the

policy which showed itself in the ELLENBOROUGH India Bill or the Reform Bill or Budget of Mr. DISRAELI. The constior the Reform Bill or Budget of Mr. DISRAELI. The consti-tuencies are just now, in fact, performing the very functions which the unfortunate American Constitution originally intended the College of Presidential Electors to discharge. They are choosing the men most to their taste as their representatives, leaving these last at liberty to select as they please the statesmen who are actually to govern the country. A very different result would show itself if the country were polled by "ticket," or voted directly for Prime Minister. Between Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Disraell its choice might be doubtful, but there can scarcely be a doubt that Lord Derry would be rejected in favour of Lord Palmerston. This curious symptom of boroughs of Lord Palmerson. This curious symptom of boroughs and counties repeatedly voting for an Opposition candidate, while they would decidedly prefer that the head of the existing Ministry should remain in office, is almost an entire novelty in English politics. It arises from the peculiar circumstances in which the Conservative reaction has its source. A current of feeling in favour of a Parliamentary Opposition is usually stirred up by great miscarriages or extravagances of conduct on the part of a Government. But though the Palmerston Cabinet has assuredly not been exempt from follies and blunders, the state of opinion which gives its supporters so much difficulty has been principally produced by circumstances external to its policy. Mr. Bright's recklessness has much to do with it—the disruption of the American Union has more. The country was universally satisfied with the abandonment of the Reform Bill; but this was exactly one of those steps which increased the general confidence in Lord Palmerston's substantial Conservatism, while it weakened the position of his supporters in their consti-

tuencies.

It is not our intention to condemn by anticipation any possible Ministry; but in the event of Lord Derby's acceding to office, the discordance between the Conservatism of the country and the technical Conservatism of the Carlton would but too probably become apparent. A Derbyite Ministry—ifat least it is to be judged by the past—would fall into those very errors which the nation, in its present mood of mind, would be least disposed to tolerate. It would concede nearly everything on the smallest pressure; where it did make a stand, it would be on the wrong points; and it would propose a series of measures of almost farcical oddity. The public opinion which is dissatisfied with Lord Palmerston's Government because it distrusts Mr. Gladstone and is not exactly sure of the extent of Mr. Bright's influence, would be rapidly out of conceit with a Ministry led by Lord Derby and inspired by Mr. Disraell. In addition to native defects, such a Government would be without the means of soothing or contending ment would be without the means of soothing or contending ment would be without the means of soothing or contending against any public discontent which its measures might provoke. There is no doubt that the Conservative party labours under two heavy disadvantages—its leaders and its newspapers. Statesmanship is the fruit of experience and of temperament, in both of which the chiefs of the Conservatives are pre-eminently unhappy. The inability of Lord Derby to resist the impulse, the passion, or the prejudice of the moment, and the purely histrionic view which Mr. Discreta seems to take of all public questions, would, under almost any conceivable circumstances, have been fatal to their obtaining that tact in the management of affairs which is almost instinctive in Lord Palmerston, and which Lord

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respectable newspapers which maintain the interests of socalled Conservatism among the daily journals; but very
brief attention to their columns proves one of two things—
either that the popular impression of the value of newspaper
support to a great political confederacy is altogether mistaken,
or that the Conservative party is extraordinarily deficient in
one principal element of influence and strength. It would
be impossible for Lord Derby's Administration, particularly
if it had a majority in the House of Commons, to pursue
always the policy of 1852 and 1858, and to swim always
with the popular current. A stand would have to be made
somewhere. A Conservative Cabinet, in mere decency,
would have to defer in some particulars to the opinions of
its supporters. On some occasions it would be in urgent
need of defence outside the walls of Parliament, and where
it would find it is a puzzle to everybody who travels through
the yearly increasing crowd of newspapers. It would be
ungracious not to allow that the two Conservative daily
journals have improved, and are improving, and an enthusiastic reader might perhaps be pardoned for believing that
their deficiencies are rather comparative than positive; but
still there is something almost ludicrous in the idea of a
Government resisting a vehement popular outery—let us
say in the recess—with only the Morning Herald and the
Skandard to demonstrate the absurdity of the prevalent

POLAND.

THE Poles have suffered and waited long; nor can it be expected that they should postpone their efforts for national self-liberation in consideration of the distracted state of Europe. Nevertheless it is difficult, in the presence of conflicting rights and of menaces from opposite quarters, to apportion the sympathies which are due to every nation which demands freedom and justice. Count every nation which demands freedom and justice. Count ZAMOYSKI, who has the best personal and hereditary right to speak in the name of his country, has published an able and timely pamphlet in answer to Lord Ellenborough's eloquent speech of last session on the relations between Poland and Russia. The most striking part of his argument to prove the practicability of Polish independence is founded on the differing tendencies of the three Powers who divided the ancient kingdom amongst them. MARIA THERESA, as it is well known, professed deep remorse for her share in the partition, and her successors have on several occasions seemed willing to relinquish, on certain conditions, their portion of the spoil. According to Count ZAMOYSKI, both Austria and Prussia were unwilling participators in the second partition; and it is certain that Francis I. and Metternich struggled at Vienna, in concert with Castlereagh and Talleyrand, to restore an independent Kingdom of Poland. In 1829, Austria offered to surrender Galicia as the price of French and English co-operation against Russia in Turkey; and in 1831 the same Power, notwithstanding its hatred of revolution, expressed strong sympathy for the Polish insurrection. During the Crimean war, Austria invited the Western Powers to re-establish the independence of Poland; and Count ZAMOYSKI believes that, in concert with Prussia, she would still support England and France in a determined effort against the usurped dominion of Russia. Few Englishmen will share Lord ELLENBOROUGH'S regret that the disaffection of Poland prevents the effective exertion of Russian influence in Central Europe. respect, the policy of 1815, which was wholly-directed against aggression by Russia and by France, has proved unexpectedly successful. If Poland were to renew the confidence which was at one time reposed in ALEXANDER I., Germany and the regions of the Danube would be placed in imminent danger. There is, however, no longer any prospect of a reconciliation, though the prospect of liberation seems to be rendered more remote by the increased pretensions of the Poles. Their present leaders claim to go beyond the first partition, and they hope to reunite Lithuania and Podolia with the present kingdom and with the outlying provinces of Galicia and Posen. Their project is entirely consistent with the modern theory of nationalities, but, as soon as they rely on so large and vague a doctrine, the argument of treaties fails them. To any representation of the liabilities which arise from the Treaty of Vienna, the Russian Government might plausibly answer by the objection that the Poles themselves repudiate the stipulations which were then made in their behalf. The hope that Austria or Prussia would now give up their Polish provinces to a revived and independent Kingdom may be pronounced altogether chimerical. A daring statesman at the head of the English Government might, in 1855, have paralysed Russia by determining on the entire reconstitution of Eastern Europe. Prussia might have been forced to concur in the great work which Austria would have willingly aided, and although the Emperor Napoleon had attained his own object in the war by satisfying the vanity of his countrymen, France would probably not have stood aloof from a great and popular enterprise if it had been proposed by England. It is not surprising that Lord Abendeen and his colleagues should have shrunk from any extension of a war which they had entered upon in opposition to their wishes and intentions. It was but honest to discountenance any attempts at insurrection which might have compromised the safety of the Polish leaders, and it may be doubted whether the English Government really desired the active alliance of Austria. For various reasons, the opportunity was allowed to pass, and the hopes of the Poles are at present directed to another set of political combinations.

another set of political combinations.

It is from France that the Poles now expect to receive the preliminary assistance which can alone render the commencement of a contest possible. In 1830, the national army was already organized and armed, but the Polish soldiers of the present day are distributed among Russian regiments and scattered in every corner of the empire. Notwithstanding the sacrifices which the nation incurred through the ambition of NAPOLEON I., the alliance and patronage of his successor are now anxiously, and not unreasonably courted; yet it is strange that the martyrs of Papal authority should derive their inspiration from the successes of Garibaldi, and that the champions of national independence should rely on the antagonism of Austria to Russia. Count Zamoyski denounces with just indignation the intrigues of Russian functionaries for the purpose of arousing agrarian disaffection among the peasants. or demagogue has been guilty of a more unpardonable crime; but the great example of social anarchy, deliberately contrived as an antidote to political agitation, was furnished by Austria herself in Galicia. It is said that the same arts have recently been attended with success in the Venetian provinces, and that rural mobs have uttered significant cries of "Long live Austria! Death to the landowners!" The necessities of injustice and the instincts of an alien despotism are more uniform than diplomatic relations, and they exercise greater influence. It was not for the purpose of surrendering the fruits of Maria Theresa's crime that the Galician peasants were taught to regard the Austrian authorities as their special protectors against the gentry. All the reasons which are urged in favour of Polish independence, tell with irresistible force against the confiscation of Hungarian rights; and it is also certain that Prussia is determined to cling to Posen, where a large and thriving population of German immigrants would repudiate the transfer of their allegiance to a Polish Government. Count ZAMOYSKI's scheme of an alliance between England and France on one side, and the minor partitioning Powers on the other, is unfortunately, in the present state of Europe, altogether chimerical. The danger which he points out from the ulterior designs of Russia, although it may not be altogether imaginary, is remote. Many changes must occur before Trieste and Oldenburg are claimed as ancient Sclavonic possessions; and it is admitted that Polish disaffection incapacitates Russia for aggression in the direc-

tion of Germany.

If circumstances lead to the reconstitution of even a mutilated Poland, England will regard the result with unnixed satisfaction. There can be but one opinion of the crime of the partition; and if Poland were separated from Russia, Germany, secured on the Eastern frontier, would be better able to resist the insatiable cupidity of France. The learned race which may be said to have discovered the principle of nationality will probably, sooner or later, apply the doctrine to itself. In Posen on the East, and in Schleswig on the North, several languages compete for supremacy amid the clamour of their respective compatriots in Germany, in Denmark, and in Poland. As to the national origin and language of the Rhenish Prussians and Bavarians, even the ingenuity of ethnologists has never suggested a doubt. Alsace and Loraine are lost, but if antoher German village is surrendered to the foreign invader, the nation will be for ever disgraced. Perhaps misfortune is the only effective instrument by which a consciousness of national unity can be developed. Napoleon taught Germany a lesson which seems to need repetition; while Italy, having been longer subject to foreign domination, has grown into a united nation more

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rapidly and more completely. Poland is at this day more thoroughly averse to amalgamation with conquering neigh-bours than at the time when internal corruption and treason facilitated the treachery of CATHERINE and of FREDERICK. There is no Russian faction in the kingdom of Poland, nor has a milder Government reconciled the population of Posen to Prussian rule. The managers of the Council of the Empire at Vienna find a difficulty in dealing with the Galician deputies, although the peasants of the province are probably still alienated from the nobility. The Russian Government has contrived to embitter the national feeling by the introduction of sectarian animosity, and, in the event of a war, the Poles may perhaps benefit by their claim to the sympathies of Roman Catholic nations. The Emperor Alexander, although he once imprudently professed approval of his father's misgovernment in Poland, may be expected to try the effects of a comparatively mild and generous policy. The Governor of Poland has been dismissed, and an intelligent German officer has been appointed in his place; but the time is passed for compromise and conciliation, and Poland, like Hungary, only waits for the opportunity of forcible separation.

THE VALLÉE DES DAPPES.

T is pardonable to feel irritated at the news that the peace of Europe is threatened for the sake of a desolate valley in the Jura of which few people have ever heard, and of whose existence many of the best maps contain no trace. But it is not quite logical to conclude—as some of our great authorities seem to have done—that because the subject-matter is small, therefore the dispute is trivial. Gibraltar is not a very large or a very productive possession, and yet we have fought for it stoutly, and may possibly have to fight for it again. A possession which the Congress of Vienna thought worthy of a special disposition, and which France has been coveting for years, may be reasonably presumed to have some element of value beyond the more agreement of value beyond the more agreement of value have of element of value beyond the mere acreage of the land; and for the same reason we may hesitate in yielding such confidence, as Parisian officials find it convenient to claim, in that pacific solution of the affair which we are told has been arranged by MM. THOUVENEL and KERN. A glance at a good military map will betray to the most careless observer what that element of value is. The country called the Pays de Gex, on the south-eastern slope of the Jura, overhangs Geneva and Nyon, and though it does not run down quite to the edge of Lake Leman, would yet enable its possessor at any moment to seize the northern shore. its possessor at any moment to seize the northern shore. This Pays de Gex belongs to France, and the only drawback to its utility for aggressive purposes is that it has but one direct military road through the Jura to Paris, and that that road passes for three or four miles through foreign territory. It can be reached, indeed, by a circuitous route which pierces the Jura southward of Geneva. But the great road from Dijon to the Pays de Gex passes through an outlying corner of the Canton of Vaud; and this corner bears the name of the Vallée des Dappes. Barren and small though it may be, it has therefore a considerable strategic value. So long as it remains in the hands of the Swiss Government, it will act as a formidable obstacle to French aggressions. It would force a French army either to make a large bend to the southward, or to drag their artillery across the mountains over the common ountry roads. It is perfectly true that such obstacles would not arrest the march of an able general. The position might be stormed, or it might be turned. No strategic position offers an absolute security. But still it goes for a great deal in the elements by which the victory is ultimately decided. From the day of Thermopyle to that of Manassas Gap, mountain gorges have proved no contemptible auxiliaries in repelling the invasion of overwhelming numbers. The Swiss Confederates are not, therefore, squabbling about a trifle, or venting their ill-temper in unseemly petulance when they refuse to acquiesce submissively in this unprovoked robbery.

But they have a deeper cause for alarm than the mere loss of a strategic position. The present dispute comes in a sequence of events which give to it in their eyes a terrible significance. The position of the Genevese is like that of the prisoner in the iron cell, which closed upon him by degrees, night after night, till in the end it crushed him. Since the annexations of last year, the Canton of Geneva lies, a thin wedge inserted into the territory of France—as it were a morsel between the into the territory of France—as it were a morsel between the jaws of some enormous monster opened to receive it. The

Salève of Savoy commands it on the one side—the slopes of the French Pays de Gex command it on the other. The de-French Pays de Gex command it on the other. The de-glutition is proceeding with a slow but inexorable progress, which the petty force of Switzerland is powerless to resis Each successive movement of the EMPEROR's policy fixes the clutch of France more firmly upon all the territories which have the ill-luck to border on the Simplon road. It is not merely that Chablais was annexed last year, and fortified, contrary to treaty, and that now the key of the passes by which the lower parts of Vaud are laid open has been seized. For the last eighteen months the secret diplomacy of the EMPEROR has been in ceaseless activity. Elsewhere he does not appear to be a troublesome neighbour. All along his Spanish and his German frontier year after year passes without any approach to a collision. The other Swiss Cantons that adjoin his territory—Bâle, Berne, and Neufchâtel—are never vexed with diplomatic difficulties. But, by a strange fatality, he is always suffering some wrong from the Cantons which lie near, or command, the Simplon road. Even in the distant Valais there was a "question," arising out of some railway fracas; and in the Cantons of Vaud and Geneva such questions are incessant. It is impossible that the Swiss Confedence tions are incessant. It is impossible that the Swiss Confederacy can mistake the meaning of these singular coincidences. The Italian people show strong symptoms of a desire to break loose from Imperial tutelage; and, to keep alive in Italy a salutary awe of his power, the EMPEROR feels that he must be master of the Alpine passes that command it. Mont Cenis, by a bold act of robbery, is already his; and the Simplon is marked out for the next prize. It may be in strict accordance with the doctrine of natural frontiers that the three Rhone Cantons should be smexed to France; but the amputation is a severe one, and the Confederation must be excused for wincing a little at each stage of the operation.

Concerning the legal merits of the case—if so trivial a

consideration is worth a passing allusion-there is no ambiguity. It might have been better, perhaps, if the negotia-tors of Vienna had been less addicted to half measures. To give the pass to one party, and the territory which the pass opened to another, was an almost certain recipe for engendering a quarrel. If they were afraid that the possession of the Pays de Gex would be misused by France, the entire transfer of it would have bred less bitterness than the transfer of the pass that led to it. Some suspicion of these results appears to have occurred to them, for the Pays de Gex was actually offered by Alexander to Vaud; but the Canton hesitated, and Alexander's volatile attention flitted off to something else. Accordingly, the old frontiers were off to something else. Accordingly, the old frontiers were restored unchanged, as they had existed previously to 1789. "La Vallée des Dappes ayant fait partie du Canton de Vaud, "lui est rendue," was the concise decree by which the proprietorship of this contested pass was settled, and to which the signature of the French Plenipotentiary, among others, was affixed. But the Powers were not satisfied with this simple affixed. But the Powers were not satisfied with this simple declaration. They pledged themselves not only to recognise, but to enforce, Switzerland's claim to her newly-defined frontier. If the popular code of public ethics had not long ago proclaimed the absolute invalidity of treaty pledges, the following undertaking might involve embarrassing duties just at present:—"Les Puissances qui ont signés la déclaration "de Vienne du 20 Mars" (the declaration we have already quoted) "reconnoissent d'une manière formelle et authentique " par le present acte la neutralité perpetuelle de la Suisse, " et lui garantissent l'inviolabilité de son territoire circonscrit " dans ses nouvelles limites." But as the same four Powers who signed this act pledged themselves on the very same day, in far stronger language, never to permit a BUONAPARTE to hold supreme power in France, there might be an awkwardness in insisting too strongly on the sacredness of our treaty

It will be a dark stain upon the character of the Emperor NAPOLEON if he persists in inflicting these wrongs on Switzer-land, to which he owes so much. The Canton of Vaud, which he has specially injured, has loyally stood by his family through good and evil report. When Napoleon went to Elba, his relations were sheltered in Vaud, in spite of the remonrelations were sheltered in Vaud, in spite of the remonstrances and threats of the Allies; and when he disembarked again in France, Vaud, almost alone among the Confederates, steadily refused to agree to the passage of the Allied armies through its territory. To the Confederation at large he has more distinctly personal obligations. He was a naturalized citizen of Thurgau, and resided there for more than twenty years. In 1838, after the failure of his enterprise at Strasburg, M. DE MOLE attempted to force the Confederation to expel him from their borders. The French Ambassador was directed to ask for his passports unless the demand for Louis Napoleon's expulsion were obeyed. But the Swiss Government loyally braved the whole power of France rather than forsake the friendless exile. Eventually, he retired of his own accord, and, in departing, liberally scattered pro-fessions of gratitude, which possibly he then thought that he should fulfil. Is it possible that he ever reads over the language of his farewell to Switzerland? "In leaving to-day, " of my own free will, the only country in Europe where I have found protection and support—in leaving a spot "which has so many claims upon my affection, I trust that "I have shown to the Swiss people that I was worthy of the interest and the esteem which they have so nobly shown for me. Never shall I forget the attitude of the " Cantons which have pronounced themselves so courageously "in my favour. I hope that this separation will not be "eternal; and that the day will come when, without com-" promising the interests of two nations who ought never to " be enemies, I shall be able again to seek the retreat which, " by a residence of twenty years, and by the rights of citizen "ship that I have acquired, had become to me a second country." The day on which he should tread again the soil of Switzerland has never yet arrived, and probably never will arrive. Even his conscience would upbraid him with his ingratitude if he were to suffer his eyes to rest, again upon the scenes where he enjoyed a shelter so generous and so thankless, and where he penned, perhaps sincerely, those fervent promises so basely since belied. This disgraceful page in his history is not without warning for others. not been uncommon in England to hear his alleged predi-lections for us, and his recollections of his English exile, dwelt on as a ground for relying upon his fidelity as an ally. Let those whom such a solace has comforted bethink them how he has dealt with the land which he named his second country, and which risked its national existence on

THE ADMIRALTY AND THE MANNING OF THE NAVY.

WE noticed last week the opinion expressed by more than one witness before the Commons Committee, that the grand defect of the Admiralty organization is the absence of personal responsibility for things not done. was the theoretical view deduced from the constitution of the Board, and few persons need to be told how exactly it tallies with the result of practical experience. the Admiralty system has always been the neglect of obvious duties, rather than the commission of obvious errors, though there are not wanting examples even of this more flagrant offence. The Board has hitherto found its safety in the vagueness and generality of the accusations brought against it, and it may not be useless, even at the risk of telling a twice-told tale, to gather from the recent Blue-book some specimens of the negligence and incompetency with which naval matters of the first importance have been treated. Let us take, as a first example, the course which has been pursued with reference to, perhaps, the first of all such questions—the manning of the fleet. If there is one subject more than another which might have been expected to engage the earnest attention of the rulers of the navy, it is the question how an adequate supply of seamen may always be secured. Sir Charles Wood, who is the consistent champion of the Board in every particular, from the broadest generalities to the pettiest detail, assures us that there is nothing in the existing system to impede the action of the Admiralty in any measures which may be requisite for manning the fleet. Whatever a Naval Minister could do, the Board, we are told, is equally competent to perform. It was suggested that, inasmuch as Sir Charles Wood himself had found it desirable to place the Coast Volunteers under special superintendence, it might be not less advantageous to to the manning of the navy; but the only answer which Sir Charles Wood could find in his brief was, that no such measure was required, and that the Admiralty was perfectly competent to perform all the duties required for that purpose. If that be so, there is no excuse to be pleaded for any omissions of which the Board has been guilty, and no fairer test of its management can be applied than to inquire what it has done from time to time in a matter of such paramount importance.

The first thing which strikes any one who interests himself in this question is the singular fact that every expe-

riment, and every one of the partial improvements which have been introduced, has emanated from some Committee or Commission. Not a single practical suggestion seems to have sprung spontaneously from the collective wisdom of the Board. The Duke of Northumberland's Committee, in 1852, originated the continuous service system; and the Commission of 1858, appointed under pressure from the House of Commons, was the source of the larger experiment which has since been tried with a view to the formation of a permanent reserve. Sir Charles Wood insisted that in both cases it would have been perfectly competent for the Admiralty to act without either Committee or Commission; but he was compelled, when pressed, to follow up this assertion by the admission that "unfortunately they did "not act." We ask nothing more in condemnation of the system than this acknowledgment from its most zealous advocate. The history of naval administration may be briefly summed up by saying that the Board of Admiralty is a body perfectly competent to perform its various duties, but that unfortunately it does not act. A machine which is so unfortunate as not to act is generally discarded at once as a failure, and it is singular that Sir Charles Wood should draw exactly the opposite inference from the involuntary portrait which he has sketched of his favourite Board.

But let us look a little more closely into the actual state of the manning problem, and see what results have been attained by the forced action of the inert Board under the spur of an unbroken series of suggestive Reports. If it can initiate nothing, surely it can carry out the recommendations of others, and the difficulty of manning the fleet ought now at any rate to be surmounted. Is this so? Sir John Pakington, who can at any rate answer for his own term of office, says that for a long period the manning of the navy has not been attended to as it ought to have been. Sir MAURICE BERKELEY, who has had more to do with it than any one else, tells us that the manning of the navy, as regards the maintenance of a reserve, has not in past time been satisfactorily attended to. When the power of impressment was practically gone, it was essential, says the Admiral, to substitute some other resource; but what all Boards of Admiralty did was merely to frame expedients for the time, without attempting to form any great plan for manning the navy in case of emergency. Captain Sullivan mentions, with considerable simplicity, that for some twenty years he has been constantly pressing on the Admiralty the dangerous deficiency of our reserves of seamen, but without effect. What else did he expect? He has certainly suggested one simple measure, which, to the extent of a few thousand men, would secure a constant supply for any emergency. He recommends that tried seamen should be appointed to posts in the different ports which are given away to gentlemen who know how to vote if they don't know how to steer. Of course, the competent Board which does not act paid little regard to the suggestion. Admiral Sir M. SEYMOUR, who is certainly not a hostile witness, considers that the recommendations of the Commission of 1858 have not been carried out as far as they ought to have been, and that the means provided by legislative enactments have not been used as they might have been. Admiral Bowles is a still more favourable witness for the Admiralty, but he cannot help saying that the state we are in at this moment, without any real machinery for manning the navy suddenly on an emergency, is the best proof that the subject has not been

properly taken into consideration of late years.

It would be tiresome to refer to all the statements in which the different witnesses echo each other's sentiments on this subject; but we must not pass over the instructive observations of Admiral Elliot and Captain Denman without calling attention to the clearness with which they trace the neglect, which not even the most infatuated admirers of the Admiralty deny, to its true cause in the defective organization of the Board. The Admiralty, like any other institution, must be judged by its fruits. It has been called upon, by every consideration which might have been expected to rouse it from slumber, to bestir itself in securing a sufficiency of seamen. Except on the recommendations of Committees and Commissions it has done nothing at all, and every plan which has been devised has been more or less defeated by the clumsy way in which the Board has executed it. The Naval Reserve is even now limited to some 5000 men, and, after all the feverish anxiety of the Russian war, the Admiralty has done so little to remedy the evils which were then apparent that, in the event of another great war, the same difficulties would be felt with scarcely any mitigation. These are the results of what the Admiralty has been doing.

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and who can hesitate to concur in Captain DENMAN's pithy conclusion, that, "judging by results, scarcely anything can "be more unsatisfactory than the present system of naval "administration"? We are not anxious now to advocate one or another of the various schemes which have been proposed for obtaining a constant supply of seamen ready whenever their service may be needed. Some naval officers of great experience place their whole reliance on the establishment of naval barracks. Others would be satisfied with the Reserve, costly as it is, if only its ranks were filled up. All sorts of opinions are expressed as to the Coast Volunteers, and there are many who declare that no good will be done until we return to a partially compulsory system in the shape of a ballot for a naval militia.

The one point on which all are agreed is, that the measures of the Admiralty have not been successful, and that much more might have been done than has ever been attempted. It is a very small step from this matter of fact to infer that the failure has something to do with the constitution of this Board that does not act; and it is not perhaps very difficult to see that, if the business of manning the fleet had been entrusted to an officer with adequate powers, something better would have resulted than the mockery of a Reserve which the Admiralty seems to be so proud of. An attempt, indeed, was made before the Committee to discredit this obvious improvement by the suggestion that for many years such an officer existed in the person of Admiral Berkeley. So far, however, was he from having the requisite authority, that on one occasion he was compelled to resign, because he was required to send the fleet to sea with skeleton crews not strong enough to work their guns. This is not the kind of authority which Captain Derman or any other naval reference would exist to the kind of authority which Captain Derman or any other naval reference would exist to the kind of authority which Captain Derman or any other naval reference would exist to the kind of the search of the searc former would substitute for the present machinery; and in spite of this ungenerous plea, the disgrace of the utter failure of the Admiralty to provide for the manning of the fleet must be borne by that ingenious contrivance—a Board not made to act. How long this singular machinery will remain is a subject on which we cannot venture to speculate, but this, at least, is certain—that among the many things which the Admiralty has not done, it certainly has not succeeded in manning the British Fleet.

BISHOPS AND BRIDES.

BISHOPS AND BRIDES.

THAT a Bishop is married to his see is an old and pleasing parable of ecclesiastical law. To be sure, in a Protestant Episcopate, it produces one or two difficulties. According to the Articles of the Church of England, it is lawful for Bishops to marry at their own discretion. How are we to decide between the claims of the spiritual wife and of the living and bodily wife? How, again, will Sir Bernard Burke arrange the arms of a Prelate in such a condition? Barchester and Proudic are duly impaled according to the laws of heraldry. What place is left for the ancestral coat of Mrs. Proudie? On the other hand, in the spiritual matrimony of a Bishop and his see, it is by no means clear which of the contracting parties is the husband and which is the wife. The spiritual union is typified by a ring on the finger of the Bishop, and in a temporal marriage the ring is certainly worn by the bride, and not by the bridegroom. And while, in the case of a temporal marriage, baron takes the dexter side, and femme the sinister, in spiritual matrimony Proudic does not impale Barchester, but Barchester impales Proudie. These two points seem to make the case not a little doubtful, without obliging us to rest on the tale of the wit who, in expounding the mysteries of the House, of Lords to a stranger, pointed out the Bishops as Peeresses in their own right. That there is something feminine in the episcopal dress, our own eyes tell us. That there is something not only feminine, but anile, in the doings of at least some Bishops, modern ecclesiastical history too fully declares. But these points we will not press. It is the ring and the sinister place on the shield on which we rely to establish an analogy between the bride of ordinary wedlock and the Bishop, rather than the Bishoprick, of the marriage spiritual.

Then, again, is there not something like an analogy in the mode of the street of the contraction.

spiritual.

Then, again, is there not something like an analogy in the mode of appointment? The Bishop is chosen under a congé d'élire. The Chapter have free leave given them to elect—the person named in Her Majesty's Letter Missive, and him only. And surely there is a congé d'élire in the other case also, only it is not so clearly marked out by whom the license is given and by whom it is received. No well-disposed daughter makes her election without consulting papa; but then, papa sometimes acts the part of King, and sometimes of Dean and Chapter. A stern father sometimes issues a mandate which is as little to be disobeyed as the will of King Harry himself. But still the form of election has to be gone through by the bride personally. The "I will" may be dictated by the voice of another, but it must be uttered by the fair victim herself. Or things may take quite the other course. Papa of course must give his consent, but by a strong-minded daughter that consent may be obtained with as little

trouble as Lord Palmerston can obtain a canonical election of anybody whom he chooses to nominate. In short, in this respect, we have not reached the legal decorum of a Protestant Establishment; we rather resemble those chaotic days when sometimes the Pope nominated the Emperor, and sometimes the Emperor nominated the Pope. All we say is, that in most marriages there is something very like a congé d'étire one way or another, and so far our parallel betweenspiritual and temporal matrimony is fully kept up. Then, again, in both forms of wedlock there is an awkward interval—a sort of transition state, like that of a chrysalis, in which he or she who is concerned is not exactly one thing or the other:—

νύμφη τ' ἄνυμφος παρθένος τ' ἀπάρθενος.

In temporal wedlock we suppose this is the time when the newspapers say that a marriage is on the tapis—a mysterious phrase, as the carpet, which we take to be the translation of tapis, suggests ideas which are rather Turkish than Christian. We never heard that bride and bridegroom, fathers, mothers, guardians, trustees, and lawyers, all sit cross-legged in a solemn divan; but, if not, we cannot see why a marriage should be said to be on the carpet rather than on the chair, the table, or the sideboard. Our only guess is, that just at this season the bridegroom at least is likely to appear rather in the character of a carpet-knight. In the case of a Bishop, ecclesiastical law has no technicality exactly expressing this period, but the analogy is just as good all the same. In neither case can hopes be realised at once. Parents and guardians must lay their heads together, rent-rolls must be compared, trustees must be hit upon, lawyers groom at least a fixely to appear that the character of a carpet-knight. In the case of a Bishop, ecclesissical law has no technicality exactly expressing this period, but the analogy is just as good all the same. In neither case can hopes be realised at once. Parents and guardians must lay their heads together, rent-rolls must be compared, trustees must be lit upon, lawyers must soil an infinite quantity of parchment, and a little swearing must be done before the Bishop himself or his deputy, unless where extreme orthodoxy prefers the more lengthy but more strictly rubrical publication of banns. So, in the other case, there is the congé d'élire, the summons, the election, the confirmation—none of them things which can be done in a hurry—and during all which time the aspirant remains in a sort of ambiguous state, already lifted a little above Presbyter, but not as yet Bishop, or even Bishop Belect. How this interval is spent in the one case, we need hardly say. Are there not endiess letters to be written, is there not the marriage service to be conned over, the new signature to be practised, and all sorts of pretty things of which we should not know the names to be ordered, tried, and shown to admiring eyes? In grosser times there were thick wedges of cake to be put into appropriate boxes, and even now there are cards to be ordered, with the new name on the card itself and the old name on the turn-down of the envelope. How it is spent in the other case it is less easy to guess. In one respect the analogy still holds. The episcopal trousseas must be laid in—the rubric itself demands it; everything that a Bishop can be called on to wear must be ready by the day of consecration. Here, alone, is some little occupation to while away the dreary hours, while Canons and Registrars and Sceretaries and Archbishop's Officials are fumbling away at their endless formalities. The tailor, the shoemaker, and the hatter have all to be consulted. Appross and buckles have to be tried, and the latest fashions in each to be examine This silly title of "Bishop Designate" was first given to Bishops in the colonies, in whose case no ceremony of election by a Chapter is gone through, so that people thought that the phrase Bishop Elect would be improper. Yet it is evident that to elect is simply to choose, that choice may be exercised by one person as well as by several, and that therefore, when a Bishopric is formally in the gift of the Crown, the nominee of the Crown is Bishop Elect as soon as he is formally appointed. From this use, which is silly enough, it has been transferred to an application yet sillier—to persons in the state of expectancy just described. Thus sermons have been announced by "the Rev. Dr. Thomson, Lord Bishop Designate of Gloucester and Bristol," before any legal step had been taken towards the removal from those sees of Dr. Baring. It is not uncommon to talk of a "bride elect;" we suppose we shall now have to talk of a "bride designate," either in the interval when both parties understand each other, but have not yet spoken their minds, or else in the interval when they have spoken their minds, but when the consent of papa has not yet been formally given.

we suppose we shall now have to talk of a "bride designate," either in the interval when both parties understand each other, but have not yet spoken their minds, or else in the interval when they have spoken their minds, but when the consent of papa has not yet been formally given.

Finally, there is a striking analogy between the full legal and ecclesiastical ratification of the election of the Bishop and the election of the bride. The rite of consecration and the rite of matrimony are both of them among "those five common'y called Sacraments," which the Church of England will not allow to be more than "states of life allowed in the Scriptures." And there is a close analogy in the celebration of each. The Canon Law requires that a Bishop shall be consecrated by an Archbishop and two Bishops, or, failing that, by any three Bishops. But it does not take upon it to assert that consecration by a single Bishop is absolutely invalid, though it is decidedly irregular. So with matrimony. Matrimony, at all events between persons of any sort of distinction, also requires three celebrants. Its highest form would doubtless be to be married by an Archbishop assisted by two Bishops. But a Bishop, assisted by two Presbyters, especially if one of them be a Dean, an Archdeacon, or a Royal Chaplain, will do very well. Lower than this we cannot suppose that Lady Rosalinda or the Honourable Araminta would ever willingly stoop. But the daughter of a plain squire may have to put up with only two celebrants, and those no more than rectors, or canons at the outside. And it is a painful fact that a large class of her Majesty's subjects have to fall lower still, and are obliged to be married by the humble hands of an unassisted curate. The law, however, regarding the necessity of the case, is merciful—more merciful than in the case of bishops. For consecration by a single bishop, though valid, is utterly irregular, but marriage by a single presbyter is notitive invalidation or irregular, but merely shabby and unfashionable. It shows th

than these of humbler churchmen, we shall have a new argument for the increase of the Episcopate and for the institution of additional cathedrals.

One word more. The unassisted eye, in glancing at the record of an assisted marriage, is often puzzled to make out who it is that is married. The bride and the bridegroom are hidden among the mass of celebrant, assistants, fathers, mothers, aunts, grandfathers, all of whose descriptions have to be inserted in announcing a really polite wedding. A very slight misreading may make one believe that the bridegroom has married his grandmother, or that the bride has been united to the officiating prelate. Some newspapers meet this difficulty by sticking the surnames of the bride and bridegroom in large letters at the beginning. This is plain and straightforward, but it is not elegant. The judicious hiding of the bride in a crowd spares her modesty, somewhat like the red veil with which the Corneliz and Æmiliæ hid their blushes on such occasions. And it may be said that to look out for the happy pair themselves among the long list of satellites recorded in the announcement, really partakes somewhat of the interest of a noval. But every morning's paper contains a long list of marriages, and really so much excitement

so early in the day is not good for us. Is there not another way of escaping the difficulty? Need the officiating dignitaries be recorded at all? Announce the marriages themselves by all means; people often wish to know who is married, even when they are in no position to expect the attention of cards addressed to themselves. But the fact of marriage is surely enough for the general public. Those who were at the breakfast know perfectly well by what Right Reverend or Venerable hands the fetters were riveted; and to the rest of the world it is a matter of perfect indifference. of perfect indifference.

SOCIAL TRUTH.

fetters were riveted; and to the rest of the world it is a matter of perfect indifference.

SOCIAL TRUTH.

It may, we suppose, be taken for granted that lying, in cultification of the control of the co as they wish them and fancy them; and all this is carried out in a certain good faith and with an easy undisturbed conscience, which must be a great improvement upon the old-fashioned lie, whose perpetrator made his way by more direct courses to his end, and had of necessity to endure many a twinge.

The truth seems to be, that society has agreed upon a middle distance between telling lies and speaking the truth, as best

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adapted to our case. If men really believed that other people spoke truth, perhaps they would too; but bare truth, sent shivering into a world unprepared for it, seems defenceles, has no chance, cannot be trusted to fight our battles, does not look even like being believed. We are obliged to deek it out a little, to fence it with reservations, to give it a colour that may catch the eye. Hence arises a general understanding that the naked verity is in nobody's mind or reckoning—a tacit agreement to give and take, a mutual compact that, though nobody speaks severe truth, yet truth is to be the upshot, and abstract truth and right the gainer—we are very particular about this. One thing, if we come to think of it, is that, even apart from interest, it is difficult to reach unvarnished truth whenever we get beyond the merest indifferent facts. The mind is so used to a process of interpretation, of tracing effects to their causes, and adapting things to probabilities—to weighing, clearing, refining, reconciling—that there are few statements that can be taken as they stand, or that we can rely on ourselves to make with transparent fidelity. Some people in the effort lose themselves in a maze of detail. A lundred things of no consequence are insisted on, corrections and qualifications without end accompany the narrative, till the main point is utterly overlaid and smothered. Thus, it is not always easy to speak the truth when we try; but when others in a certain frame of mindset themselves to elicitit, the difficulty is increased indefinitely. What an awkward machinery for extracting truth, for example, is a court of justice! How entirely the spirit, and really we might almost say the body, of an event seems to vanish before a series of legal interrogatories! How hard to get hold of anything by the process of an oath, how dull when it is got hold of, what trivialities come in, what important considerations are ignored and allowed no place! How stupefied the witness under so uncongenial a discipline—how blundering the c

Amaryllis. Villain! what monster did corrupt thy mind
T attack the noblest soul of human kind?
Fisherman. Prince Prettyman.
Amaryllis. To kill whom?
Fisherman. Prince Prettyman.
Amaryllis. What! did Prince Prettyman hire you to kill Prince Pretty-

man?

Fisherman. No, Prince Volscius.

Amaryllis. To kill whom?

Fisherman. Prince Volscius.

Amaryllis. What! did Prince Volscius hire you to kill Prince Volscius?

Fisherman. No, Prince Prettyman.

Amaryllis. What! did Prince Volscius hire you to kill Prince Volscius? Fisherman. No, Prince Prettyman.

We have not seldom been left in the hapless Princess's state of doubt after an hour's brisk investigation carried on under the like condition of a total incompatibility between questioner and respondent. And here let us observe that the fact or secret which resists the systematic siege constantly falls before a very different invader. Who does not know some goodnatured blunderer who asks questions, not from curiosity, but because he knows no other way of keeping up conversation, and who, by a series of awkward spasmodic accidents, contrives to hit and drag to light the cherished secret of everybody within his reach—who stumbles unwittingly, but not the less by an unfailing instinct, on all those circumstances which habit and sensitiveness keep uniformly in the background—and whom no tact, no stupidity can evade? But this is by the way.

It seems, then, that aiming at the exactest finical accuracy is not the way to attain truth, nor in all cases the way to prove that we regard it as the chief good. Endeavours so conducted always end in failure, and undoubtedly none of the parties in these skirmishes are good company. The lookers-on get tired of the strategics of the principal actors, and regard the who'. thing as a bore. A few details may well, it seems to the matter in the end, and more hopeless, not to say indifferent, as to ever knowing more than when the point was started. Nothing lowers truth so much as the want of keeping up a right estimate of what is really important, and what only relatively so—a fact which these

sticklers seem entirely to ignore. But all are not sticklers. There is another more popular and agreeable class of truth-seekers who act upon diametrically opposite principles, and seem to think that truth in the general can only be got at by a spirited disregard of truth in the particular. In what a wonderful way are certain social and historical theories founded, and our assent demanded, on a basis, evident to usall, of wilful misrepresentation—things, that is, twisted out of their first seeming, because, in a large and elevated point of view, they must, in spite of appearances, have such and such a bearing. Our social movements, our popular enterprises, how are they sustained on an utter overriding and wilful ignoring of minor or local fact! What a seem of cooked reports, of suppression, of counter-eridence, of deiberate exageration are our wholesale benevolent undertakings! What a ferment of inaccuracy and slipperiness lies undernath what is called a broad and general view, as, indeed, in most generalities and summaries! so that it is scarcely too much to say that a lie lurks in every neatly-turned sentence and smart saying. In this art of ignoring with a high hand all impediments to our conclusions, in the discovery of a philosophy which distils large truth out of the grain of small error, in our aptitude at making again of inaccuracy, and profiting by the superficialness of our knowledge, we have hit upon a vein unknown to our ancestors, who, if they knew when they lied, had also a more distinct sense of fact when they spoke the truth.

Perhaps, then, after all, lying has not so much quitted our world as changed its ground and aspect—no longer conversing with us familiarly in dialogue fashion, but addressing us in masses with general fallacies—above all, having changed its weapons, and, instead of speaking lies as of old, writing and printing them—evidently a far less embarrassing method in our refined times. It is transparent that most leading articles are write upon, but who find their ignorance conveni

GOOD LUCK.

OT long ago, in a rural part of England, a little girl was in the habit of stealing barley from a rick. She and her companions persisted in following this pastime in spite of the remonstrances and threats of the owner, and at last he lost patience, seized on her as the oldest of the offenders, and had her brought before the Bench of Magistrates. As it was proved that this was not a casual but an habitual offence, the Bench thought fit to make an example of her, and ordered her to pay two shillings as a fine, besides the expenses. But law, even of the simplest kind, costs money, and the expenses were seventeen shillings. It was not certain that the friends of the little thief would lay down a sovereign for her unless some gentle pressure was exercised, and it was therefore added to the sentence that, unless the fine and expenses were paid within a given time, she should go to prison for three weeks. This produced the desired effect, and the money was found and paid. But the history was not to end there. One or two of the papers that watch the proceedings

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of magistrates with most jealousy and suspicion got hold of the case. Here was a monstrous outrage on common sense, and a cruel tyranny of the rich over the poor. A poor little child sent to jail for three weeks because the simple creature, in its play, pulled a little barley, valued at twopence, out of a rick. The writers of sensation articles exulted in so telling a theme, and, for once, they produced an effect much greater than usually falls to the lot of the Catos and Brutuses of journalism. The readers of the sensation article took it into their heads to subscribe for the injured innocent. The generosity of one was stimulated by the record of that of another. Subscriptions poured in, and in the end no less than thirty-five pounds were collected and handed over to the friends of the child. Such is the harvest that this lucky little girl has reaped from the fruitful soil of British indignation. Few instances of good luck could be more surprising. She has been the talk, not only of her parish, but of all England. She must be famous herself, and it must even be a privilege to be connected with her. She will henceforth be pointed at in school and church as the celebrated Jane Smith, or whatever her name is, whose wrongs moved England to wrath, and set in motion the pens of "Publicola" and "Aristides," and a "Lover of Homely Justice." And she will not only be the heroine of the parish, but also its heiress. If her thirty-five pounds are carefully put out at interest, she will have at least fifty pounds by the time she is her own mistress. Fifty pounds in hard cash is, among the village poor, quite as great a fortune for a young woman to have as fifty thousand is for a young lady. Then, if we contrast the greatness of the end with the smallness and ignoble character of the means and first starting-point of her good fortune, we get at the true measure of her luck. She has suddenly become famous and rich, and this by simply stealing twopenny-worth of barley. None of the poets that have sung the fickleness and blind

None of the poets that have sung the fickleness and blindness of fortune had ever a more telling instance to furnish a theme for their verses.

Nor could any instance better show the fallacy of the notion that there is nothing in good luck, and that the boons it brings are of no real value. Perhaps we can see the reality of good luck better in humble life than in a higher sphere. We can steer clear of all notions of a roue, or a man of fashion running through his estate—of the great reverses of the gambling-table, or of the misfortunes that ruin emperors and statesmen. To win or lose the Empire of Persia sounds fine, but does not come very near our thoughts. But the luck of this lucky little thief is exceeding intelligible. There are so many benefits, both of a solid and also of an ornamental kind, that she may derive from it. In the first place, a portion of her wealth may be spent on her education. She might even be sent for a quarter of a year to a finishing school at sixteen guineas per annum. Then she might get a few books far beyond what most of her friends could boast, which would help her to keep up what she had learned, or at any rate sustain her reputation for learning. She might, for example, get one of those standard books prized by the poor, such as the Whole Duty of Man; and as she would probably not feel much inclined to use it, she might prudently go to the expense of having a copy in a handsome binding. This would be alastingcredit to her, and would help her in many ways. We fancy rustic lovers would speak much more timorously and deferentially to a young woman who was known to have the Whole Duty of Man in purple morocco. As an heiress and a heroine, she would have all the young men of the village at her feet; and the pleasure of snubbing, coaxing, and repelling one lover after another is as sweet to a milkmaid as to a princess. When she makes up her mind to settle, it will be she, and not her husband, who will rule the house, provided she is wise enough to keep her money, and to check him fir

tune—and all this comfort, respect, and honour she would have got by stealing barley.

What a fine contrast to such a career is presented by the lot of one of those agricultural models whom Mr. Disraeli delights to honour! For fifty years, perhaps, he has gone on unnoticed and unknown. He has always driven the carts, or looked after the cows, or minded the plough on the same farm, just making himself worth the miserable pittance he gets from his master. At last some enthusiast discovers him to be an agricultural hero. He is a faithful servant, and shall be rewarded for his faithfulness. So he is dressed in a new red waistcoat with handsome glass buttons, and his matted grey locks are combed out, and he is led up before a company of grand gentlemen, the chief of whom makes him a nice speech, saying that it is very satisfactory in every way to find he has gone on being a faithful servant for half a century, and, as a mark of the approbation of the county, he has been awarded a new smock-frock and five shillings. When Jane Smith has completed her education

and studies the newspapers, and finds there chronicles of such tributes to virtue, she may wonder more than ever at her own good fortune. She had not to wait to be seventy in order to be rewarded—she got her prize at twelve years old. She did not get a stupid smock-frock and a few shillings, but thirty-five bright, golden, beautiful sovereigns; she had not to go through the horrible nuisance of being a faithful servant; she had only to form one of a playful merry group, diverting themselves with stealing barley. It is not utter failure that brings out the full virtue of good lack. It is a little hard-won success that gives its value to great success easily won. Only those who do tolerably well feel what it is to do very well in the world. A poor creature who lives by pawning and begging till she dies in a workhouse is too far removed from the sphere of good fortune at all to trouble herself about lucky people. She would not feel she had more to do with Jane Smith than she had with the grand folk that live in the big houses, and eat meat every day. Jane Smith in her turn would never dream of comparing herself with such a poor beggar; but the companions of Jane Smith, who work hard, and go out to service or drudge at home, and just float on the waters of respectable poverty, will feel sometimes very keenly how lucky Jane Smith has been, and will bring home to her the extent of her happy fortune. It is the school friends of General McClellan who are now serving under him as lieutenants or captains that, we may be sure, think most of his rise, and wonder why they have not risen too.

It is, however, astonishing how little feeling on the whole these caprices of fortune excite. It might be thought that any sudden accession of worldly wealth, so great in proportion to her station and so wholly unmerited as that which has fallen to the lot of this little village thief, would quite derange the rociety that witnessed it, would upset the traditional views and opinions of the village, and make every one dissatisfied. Happi

rise, and wonder why they have not risen too.

It is, however, astonishing how little feeling on the whole these caprices of fortune excite. It might be thought that any sudden accession of worldly wealth, so great in proportion to her station and so wholly unmerited as that which has fallen to the lot of this little village thief, would quite derange the society that witnessed it, would upset the traditional views and opinions of the village, and make every one dissatisfied. Happily, human nature is not so constituted. The good fortune of other persons affects usvery little. There are, indeed, two sets of people who fix their thoughts rather intently on their successful neighbours. There are those who are in the same line, and once were on an equality. There is a jealousy in all "rofessions—a jealousy of clever, safe parsons who see a parson no cleverer or safer than themselves made a bishop—a jealousy of barristers who see a new light at sessions steal away some of the petty larceny cases on which they have set their hungry hearts—a jealousy of honest officers who have to serve under a man of unusual genius or impudence. There are also certain people who are prone to moralize over human life, and to criticise the constitution of the world. They are moved to indignation that fortune, and not merit, should command the good things of life, and are saddened and irritated by pondering over the "something that infects the world." But this class-jealousy and this philosophical despair extend a very short way, and affect very few people. In the first place, we have most of us too much to do, and are too fully occupied with our own cares and pleasures to spend much thought on the position of our neighbours. The leasure to be envious is one of the greatest penalties of idleness, and one of the most serious drawbacks to a life of obscure competence. Hardworking people, and those who have daily anxieties pressing on them, let the favourites of fortune enjoy their luck, and scarcely care to notice what is going on. A week

THE COUNT OF PARIS'S PAMPHLET.

A STRONG and painful apprehension has been gradually stealing over the minds of English statesmen for some timepast, that the enormous efforts which England has made to uphold the Turkish Empire will not avail to avert its full. The confident and sanguine tone of a few years ago prevails no longer. The carnest efforts to prove, against all appearances, that Turkish finance was sound, and to hope against hope that Turkish re-ceneration was at hand, have been nearly abandoned. The faint and 'r' is the exertions of the new Sultan in the character of a Reformer have failed to revive the illusions that have passed away. No false hopes can conceal from us the real state of the "sick man." To all outward appearance, he is sinking fast; and the terrible calamities that must follow his dissolution are already casting their shadow over Europe. His heritage still remains to be disposed of; and each of the rival

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claimants is actively intriguing to secure that the largest share shall be his own. The only result that seems likely to reward the policy of the statesmen who have loyally striven to perpetuate the Ottoman dominion, will be to have postponed, perhaps to have exasperated, the final struggle. The pamphlet which has been printed by the Count of Paris is an instructive indication of the fatelity which is slowly driving Europe towards this conflict. Of all Frenchmen he is probably the man who bears England the least ill-will. He is the representative of the old entente cordiale; the victories which usually embitter Frenchmen against us were won to save the Bourbon dynasty; and it was in this country that he found a refuge when the throne of his grandfather was subverted. It is not likely, therefore, that he cherishes any hostility to England; nor is there the slightest trace of such a feeling in his pamphlet. We may safely conclude, therefore, that any plans or wishes for French aggrandizement, dangerous to England, which find entrance into his mind will be harboured in tenfold intensity by rulers of France who are not so closely bound to us. And yet the projects which the mere sight of the decaying Ottoman Empire suggests to him would, if he had the power to carry them out, infallibly plunge the two nations into war.

plunge the two nations into war.

The first impression which he received from his sojourn in Syria was that which must force itself on every observant travelle the utter and helpless decadence of the Ottoman power. I ane utter and helpless decadence of the Ottoman power. It is apparently stamped with the unfailing sign of political death. The callent, unavowed disintegration of provinces, from which no empire ever rallies, seems to have commenced. The robber-chiefs who rule in Syria in the Sultan's name bear his commission, and receive his pay; but he can no more remove them than he can remove the Pasha of Egypt. Akiel-Aga, who governs Galilee from Jordan to the coast, owes to the Sultan precisely the same allegiance, and no more, that the Nizam owed to the successors of Augustales. no more, that the Nizam owed to the successors of Aurungzebe. In other parts of the country, the Turks exercise something more approaching to an authority, either by making an occasional raid into the country or by the more inexpensive method of setting against each other the heterogeneous fragments of races of which the population is composed. The result is the utter insecurity of life and property, and the paralysis of agriculture and commerce, besides the occasional collisions which the nominal Government is under the necessity of contriving. Such a spectacle naturally suggests to the young Prince a panegyric upon his grandfather's policy of 1840, and a severe criticism upon the policy by which it was foiled. Ibrahim might have been a cruel governor, but at least he would have been a strong one. To the existing generation, however, Lord Palmerston's policy of 1840 is rather a matter of antiquarian lore. More interest will be taken in the proposals by which the Prince hopes that the evil consequences rather a matter of antiquarian lore. More interest will be taken in the proposals by which the Prince hopes that the evil consequences of that policy may be cured. The Ottoman pretence to dominion must, in his view, be terminated as soon as possible. Energetic measures must be adopted without any pity. But, in the mean time, Europe has a civilizing mission to perform. See interets lui commandeat de songer à l'accenir de la Syrie. She is bound to assure to Syria security and peace. This doctrine is harmless enough thus far; but the question is, what is the Europe which is to undertake this benevolent interposition? The Prince shows an early skill in that species of diction which is the best disguise of thought. He is very careful to avoid mentioning the name of France more often than it is absolutely necessary. It is always of thought. He is very careful to avoid mentioning the name of France more often than it is absolutely necessary. It is always Europe to whom the woes of Syria cry aloud, and Europe who is to come to her rescue. But in the last few pages the word Europe receives a suitable interpretation. England may have power by her commerce, and Russia by her religion; but, as both these elements of power belong to France, "he rôle principale appartient naturellement à la France." The Maronites are the hope of 'Syria's regeneration; the only bond that binds them together is their religion; and of that religion they regard France as the great champion. Their religion, therefore, is the lever by which France is to act on Syria; and its priests, "forment une admirable milice pour accomplir cette couvre de progrès." And lest the other Powers of Europe should cherish any delusive hope that at least a subordinate part in this work of progress is to be reserved to them, the Prince concludes by pointing out that the present collective protectorate has proved wholly inadequate to the task of saving the Christians from oppression; that with Orientals half-measures are of no use; and that the compromises which a joint protectorate of of no use; and that the compromises which a joint protectorate of rival Powers involves must be fatal to its efficacy. "Or tout protectorat exercé par tant de puissances opposées d'intérêts et d'idées ne peut exister que par des concessions mutuelles et n'aboutir qu'à de termes moyens. De là son impuissance." In short, there is no other cure for the ills of Syria but that France should enjoy an exclusive protectorate until such time as the demise of the Ottoman Power shall invest her with the rights of

demise of the Ottoman Power shall invest her with the rights of legal heir.

We are far from blaming the Count of Paris for fixing his eyes so a leadily upon the traditional object of French diplomacy. he does wisely to convince his countrymen that, though an exile, he is not an emigré. Nothing made the return of the Bourbons and their adherents so distasteful to their former subjects as the case with which they shook off their nationality when they left the soil of France. Whether as a simple Frenchman or as a possible inheritor of the French throne, the Count of Paris needs no excuse for cherishing the durling objects of French ambition. no excuse for cherishing the darling objects of French ambition. The conversion of the Mediterranean into a French lake has been the steady aim of the Foreign Office in Paris, throughout all the

political changes of the last sixty years. Whatever fresh changes the future may have in store, they are not likely to reverse this policy. If the Count of Paris should ever ascend the throne of his ancestors, he will have no choice but to accept the traditions of those whom he supersedes. The anxiety with which English statesmen regard the approaching fall of the Ottoman dominion does not depend on the restlessness or the ambition of

any single man.

any single man.

This pamphlet brings out with unpleasant distinctness the real nature of the alliance between the French Government and the Roman Catholic Church. In this respect it resembles another manifesto from the same political camp which has recently startled the world. M. Guizot contrasts unfavourably with the Count of Paris in point both of candour and logical skill. M. Guizot attempts to deduce a tyrannous policy from Liberal principles to which it is utterly abhorrent. The Prince argues from a purely national point of view. He takes no account of the counterclaims of rival nations. But his conclusion is unimpeachable if his premisses are admitted. He does not simultaneously preach a set of principles and a course of action absolutely contradictory of each other. But though the disinherited heir and the his premisses are admitted. He does not simultaneously preach a set of principles and a course of action absolutely contradictory of each other. But though the disinherited heir and the nucient Minister differ much in the tone of their political morality, they agree in the estimate which they form of the functions and uses of the Roman Catholic religion. It is something more to them than the religion of the masses in France. It is a potent instrument in the hands of the French Government for adding to the territory and influence of France. M. Guizot's strange sympathies with the Papacy are evidently largely due to the footing which it gives to French intrigues in Italy. The Prince is still more open. He candidly confesses that in his view the chief object of missionary exertion in Syria should be to extend the influence of France. He is content to admit that the missionaries are powerless to improve the moral and spiritual condition of the Orientals; but they have another important task, worthy of all their efforts: important task, worthy of all their efforts:

Important task, worthy of all their efforts:—

Nos missionaires font beaucoup en Orient, mais ils ne pourront changer l'esprit et élever le niveau moral de la nation, tant que celle-ci trouvera son propre clergé au même rang qu'elle même. Ils ont du se contenter jusqu'ici de remplir un autre rôle bien important d'ailleurs et digne de tous leurs efforts. Leur caractère, leurs vertus, leurs talents, leur donnent une grand autorité dans le Liban, et les rendent arbitres ou conseillers dans bien des affaires; ils l'emploient à populariser le nom de la França in irroduire nos idées dans une certaine nombre de familles: ils representent l'influence Française sous la forme la plus salutaire.

Englishmen have never been exposed to the temptation of trying to make their religion an instrument of secular aggrandizement, to make their religion an instrument of secular aggrandizement, and therefore such views seem very shocking to them. But they must remember that a Frenchman does not draw the line very sharply between his patriotism and his religion, and that, just as he fights in China to propagate his religion, so he preaches in Syria to extend his territory. Employing the ministers of religion to promote the aggrandizement of France is, in a Frenchman's eyes, only employing them in another department of their religious functions. At all events, it is evident that the Roman Catholic faith has substantial claims upon the affection of French rulers, apart from questions of dynasty or neciliar Roman Catholic fatth has substantial claims upon the affection of French rulers, apart from questions of dynasty or peculiar states of public feeling. The Emperor's hesitation to break with the Papacy would be inexplicable if it had no title to his regard beyond the predilections of the Empress, or even the political influence of Monseigneur Dupanloup; but he may well hesitate when he remembers how important a part it forms of the machinery by which the absorption of Syria is to be effected, and when he sees how keenly its importance is recognised by his rivals.

PUBLIC EDUCATION IN AMERICA.

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In discussing this subject it is necessary to bear in mind that in America the school management is local, and that there is a hierarchy of schools. Both at Boston and at New York there are three grades of schools—the Primery, the Grammar, and the High School, or Free Academy. Strictly speaking, the Primary correspond to the Infant departments, and the Grammar to the ordinary departments of the British and National schools in this country. These two sorts of schools are filled with children of New York and Boston citizens of all ranks between the ages of four and twelve or fourteen. At Boston, no child is admitted to a Primary school after seven, nor can any boy or girl under twelve be admitted into the High School. At New York, the age for admission isto the Free Academy is fourteen. It is necessary to pass an examination in order to be advanced from the Primary to the Grammar, and from the latter to the High School, or Free Academy. It is scarcely necessary to add that the expense is entirely defrayed by public funds—no fees are demanded.

But although the system of public education is so complete in

But although the system of public education is so complete in theory, it must not be supposed that there are no private establishments. In former times it was the fashion for persons of all ranks to send both their sons and daughters to the public schools. The late Mr. Webster boasted of having received his education in the public schools of Boston, and rich bankers and merchants used to send their daughters to the same institutions. But it is used to send their daughters to the same institutions. But it is believed that the fashion has somewhat changed, especially with respect to girls, and even boys are not unfrequently now sent to private schools. In this respect the Americans have followed the example of the Scotch. Some forty or fifty years ago, the sons of Scotch sountry gentlemen, and even some noble-

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men, used to attend the parish school and the universities. Some of the upper classes still attend the latter, but the former they have abandoned for private academies and the great public schools of England.

The American public schools are singularly uniform in appearance. They are generally large square buildings of several stories, consisting of a number of large, well-ventilated classrooms. In each room there may be fifty pupils, each of them seated at a separate desk, on a separate backed chair. Each room generally contains one class, divided into two sections; so that when the teacher is instructing one section, the other is busy at some school-work. With the exception of the Principal, who is always a man, and who is often assisted by a woman, the other teachers are often females. In the Primary, or Infant schools (as we should call them), the children are seldom above seven years of age, and women are probably better adapted for such schools than men. But even in the Grammar schools, where the children are older, women find no difficulty in maintaining discipline. In a new country, where labour is so valuable, it is obviously of the atmost importance to economize it as much as possible; hence women are naturally employed in scholastic business. It must be admitted, however, that in every Northern State the complaint is heard that neither masters nor mistresses are fit for their work. They have not been instructed in the art of teaching; and the art of teaching does not come by intuition. Hence constant attempts are being made to establish normal schools where teachers may learn their business. In Massachusetts, in New York, in Philadelphia, and in Canac'a, such schools have been established; and, although in some cases maintained with difficulty, are considered by those who are best informed upon the subject, the keystone of the whole system of public education. Such being the result of American experience, it is somewhat singular to find the English Council of Education propounding a scheme to diminish the amount of public aid which those schools now receive—and that in the teeth of the express recommendation of the Education Commiss oners. With respect to the teachers, it is only necessary to add, that the

that in the teeth of the express recommendation of the Education Commiss oners. With respect to the teachers, it is only necessary to add, that they are examined by a committee as to their competence before receiving their appointment, and that each year they are reappointed.

A good deal has been said as to the failure of the English masters and mistresses in British and National Schools to instruct their pupils in reading, writing, and arithmetic. It certainly does appear that their failure has been considerably exaggerated; and indeed it will probably be found that, considering the class from which the pupils are drawn, and the time which they spend at school, the National and British schoolmaster accomplishes more than any other persons who have undertaken the same difficult task, whilst the whole cost of educating a boy or girl is less in England than it is in America. In proof of this assertion, let us briefly state the result obtained by examining a considerable number of boys and girls in some of the beat schools in Canada, Boston, and New York. These may be taken as the most favourable specimens of the results of American education. It will be observed that care has been taken to confine them to dictation, so as to test the writing and orthography, and thus to furnish means for comparing these results with those recorded in the Appendix to the Education Report. The first instance shall be the Model School at Toronto, which is attached to the Normal School, where teachers are trained. The number of pupils examined was twenty, and the ages of the boys varied from ten to thirteen. Two sentences were dictated as follows:—1. "I am grateful for all the benefits I have received." 2. "A stag quenching its thirst in a clear lake, was struck by the beauty of its horns, which he saw reflected in the water." This passage occurs in one of the ordinary reading books. It must not, of course, be supposed that the school in question is to be held responsible for the ignorance of these boys, because they may have been s

But probably the best mode of testing the quality of the education furnished in the public schools of America will be by producing the results of an examination of the boys who had just

entered the Free Academy at New York. It should be observed that, before a boy can be admitted into this institution, he must be fourteen, he must have attended the common schools of the town for twelve months, and must have passed a good examination in spelling, reading, writing, English grammar, arithmetic, geography, algebra, the history and constitution of the United States, and elementary book-keeping. If the boy examined does not satisfy the examiner, he is rejected, so that the amount of knowledge possessed by a boy upon entering this academy will supply the test of what is meant in New York by passing a good examination in spelling, reading, and writing. As the Faculty of the Free Academy has power to recommend students for degrees, and as the course of instruction includes Latin, Greek, Chemistry, Moral Philosophy, and Engineering, it may be assumed that the students are drawn from the better ranks of society, or, at all events, can spare time to complete their education. Besides a sum in addition, in which the highest number was 51,000,101, and which was correctly done by every boy, these sentences were dictated. I. "I am grateful for all the benefits which I have received." 2. "In the familiar offices of life he scrupulously adhered to the grave and ceremonious politeness of his country. His respectful attention to the rich and powerful was dignified by his condescension and affability to the poorest citizens of Mecca." 3. The days of the week: Monday, &c. A dozen boys who had just entered the Free Academy, and who therefore had just passed the entrance examination, were examined; and in their papers as many as thirty-four mistakes were discovered, whilst only two were quite correct. These boys were all above fourteen—one or two of them were sixteen—and, as has been observed, they were, no doubt, amongst the best specimens to be found in the New York Grammar-schools. Amongst the mistakes, there occurred "recieved," "Teusday," "adheared," "ceremounious," "scrupiously," "condessension," &c. The handwri

condescension and affability to the poorest citizens of Mecca."

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As to the expense of public education in America, it is somewhat difficult to estimate it. No doubt, in every Report published by Boards of Education, the cost of education is estimated, but it is probable that the number of children under instruction is exaggerated. In New York, for instance, it has been publicly stated that "the number of children under instruction is exaggerated. In New York, for instance, it has been publicly stated that "the number of children under instruction is exaggerated. In New York, for instance, it has been publicly stated that "the number of children under in the same school, and as often as he was discharged and re-admitted in the same school, and as often as he was discharged and re-admitted in the same school, and as often as he was changed from one department to another in the same school; and that from such a b

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If instead of elaborately investigating the educational systems of France and Germany, the Commissioners had directed their inquiries to the United States and Canada, they would not only have found a system of public education much more analogous to that of England, but would have seen reason to congratulate this country upon possessing a system as efficient as that of America, if not more so, and certainly much more economical to the State. In conclusion, it is scarcely necessary to add that, large as the expenditure upon education is in America, it is universally admitted to constitute the sheet-anchor of the commonwealth amid the storms of democracy. It is to be hoped, therefore, that whatever change may be made in the system now administered by the Privy Council, it may not be so transformed as to lose much of its excellence by injuring the Training Colleges, by discouraging Infant schools and pupil-teachers, or by depriving the common people of the most useful benefit which can be conferred upon them.

LIFE-BOAT SERVICES.

THE promenade at Scarborough has lately witnessed a spectacle very different from that which visitors to a favourite watering-place are used to contemplate. In the tremendous gale of last Saturday, a vessel missed the entrance to the harbour, and was driven ashore close under the wall of the promenade. It seemed that this vessel must perish with all on board of her, within a very few yards of the scene of summer gaiety. But the vessel's crew were saved without delay or injury, while a deplor-

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able disaster occurred to the life-boat which went forth to aid her. Before speaking of the circumstances under which several lamented deaths occurred, it may be useful to point out what strikes us as a weakness—which, however, is perhaps inevitable—in the organization of the life-boat service. When a life-boat is established at any place, the most able, active, and courageous men who can be found among the seafaring population are, as a matter of course, enlisted and trained to form a crew for it. At regular intervals they go out for practice in its management. The boat is always ready, and, if circumstances admit, is placed where it may be launched instantaneously; but the crew, if they be really the best men of the place where they dwell, are just as likely to be afloat as ashore when the call is made for them. No doubt it is possible to train more than a single crew, and it is also possible at many points of the coast to enlist men who are not likely to be engaged far from land in stormy weather. But as one hears a good deal at the seaside of the training of special crews for life-boat service, something like disappointment is felt when it is stated that at Scarborough all but one or two of the men thus trained were absent at what was the training of special crews for life-boat service, something like disappointment is felt when it is stated that at Scarborough all but one or two of the men thus trained were absent at what was thought to be the time of need. We do not, however, attribute the sad disaster which occurred to the absence of these chosen men. The experienced captain of the crew was present, and managed the boat's rudder, and therefore it is to be assumed that, whoever plied the oars, the same catastrophe would have occurred. By a strange infatuation, the life-boat was conducted exactly where she could do no good, and where, also, as it proved, her services, if she could have rendered any, were unnecessary. The crew of the vessel were rescued without any difficulty, and even without any great personal discomfort, by means of the rocket apparatus which threw a rope from the promenade-wall to the ship's rigging. The crew of the life-boat were hurled from their seats, driven to and fro by the advancing and retiring waves, dashed against the sea-wall, ground between that wall and their own helpless boat, and, finally, two of their number perished, while the successful efforts to save the rest cost the lives of two of the spectators. If this sacrifice had been made for any useful purpose, the sorrow of friends and relatives would not be so heavy as it now is. But in truth, the life-boat was not wanted; and even if she had been, she ought to have kept away. The art of histories are the sorted by the sorted had been had been, she ought to have kept away. The art of of the spectators. If this sacrifice had been made for any useful purpose, the sorrow of friends and relatives would not be so heavy as it now is. But in truth, the life-boat was not wanted; and even if she had been, she ought to have kept away. The art of building these boats has been brought to very high perfection, but still it is a very long way from the construction of a model which can be trusted with valuable lives in the broken water off such a place as the promenade of Scarborough in a north-east gale. The wave thrown back by the sea-wall met the next wave which followed it in the assault; and as they dashed together, the unhappy life-boat was tossed like a shuttlecock upon their mingled crests. It is said that one of the ejected crew was carried by the current which prevails with the ebb-tide from the south to the north end of the promenade. During these awful moments, he fought manfully with fate, being kept affoat by a life-belt, and contriving always to be thrown with his feet against the stone wall. He was rescued without serious injury. Perhaps the lives which have been lost, or some of them, might have been saved if the most effectual measures could have been promptly taken under some authority which all present would have obeyed. But it is one of the worst features of such accidents that many run and shout, while few know how to give real help, and these few are obstructed in giving it by incompetence which clamours and fumbles. In all descriptions of these occurrences, done in the true penny-a-liner vein, one may read of the prevalence of excitement and of the enthusiastic cheers which greet each successful attempt to save a life. It does not seem to occur to the cheering crowd that its only proper part is to keep silent and stand out of the way. Although the season at Scarborough is over, and the place would be called, by those who know only its highest gaiety, deserted, there are still quite enough residents and visitors to supply a little skilful and resolute assistance and a great deal of

difference in sea-worthiness between even a crazy collier and a fishing boat; and besides, the present race of seamen in the northeast ports must pass away before the reckless indifference to all warnings of danger which now marks their conduct will be to any great extent corrected. After all, we can hardly bring ourselves to blame a vice which is very nearly allied to virtue. Knowledge and prudence are no doubt very fine qualities, and perhaps, as the world grows older, we shall get more of them; but, for practical purposes, the sort of sailor who would damn the barometer and put to sea is not likely to be surpassed. However, science is certainly progressing, as appears from the statement that Admiral Fitzroy's drum might have given warning against violent wind some hours before it began to blow, if the Admiral's order had been transmitted as soon as he had formed his conclusion, and if there were any means of making the drum visible by night. It must not be supposed that any promptitude in issuing this notice for Saturday could have

rendered it effectual for the benefit of the colliers which sailed on Friday afternoon; but the fact that it was issued seems to prove that there must have been local warnings which the colliers might, if their owners and captains chose, have heeded. However, the fleet which sailed on Friday had time to get a good offing before the gale began; and it appears, besides, that this gale was more violent on shore than out at sea; so that perhaps the colliers may be absolved from the charge of excessive contempt of danger, while at the same time science marks an unquestionable triumph in the exhibition of Admiral Fitzeroy's drum.

It is also gratifying to record the easy and complete success of the rocket apparatus which saved the shipwrecked crew at Scarborough. They were landed without even the common inconvenience of a ducking in the surf. The life-boat which was destroyed is to be replaced by the munificence of a single person, so that this disaster, like many others, has helped to prove how powerful is the appeal which the National Life-boat Institution renders to humanity, alike by its own efforts and by giving aid and counsel to the local associations which are labouring towards the same object. We observe, year by year, that the influence of the Institution grows, and we should be pleased to see its pecuniary means grow even more rapidly. The object of the Institution may be briefly stated to be the preservation of human life at the average cost of one pound a head. We do not ourselves think that this is a high price to pay, but the point perhaps admits of difference of opinion. Certainly that Admiral who only paid sixpence for saving his own life might reasonably grudge the expenditure of forty sixpences in saving the life of a mere ordinary seaman of the commercial navy. But we think that even this Admiral, if he were living, would be ready to admit that the services which are performed under the direction of this Society have a high value as examples of courage and of marine aptitude, and must do much to s

REVIEWS.

MUIR'S HISTORY OF MAHOMET.*

MUIR'S HISTORY OF MAHOMET.*

M. R. MUIR has completed his life of Mahomet. The first two volumes were published at the time of the Indian Mutiny; and a hurried postscript to the second volume, dated Fort Agra, July, 1857, tells us how the last proofs were corrected under difficulties, all the writer's books and papers "having been placed in security from the ravages of the mutineer army." These volumes bring down the history to the great break in Mahomet's career—the flight to Medina. The third and fourth volumes, now published, finish the subject.

The features which mark Mr. Muir's work are three. He has attempted to arrange chronologically the contents of the Koran so as to illustrate from it the history of the Prophet's mind, and, as far as it will go, the events of his life. He has not only gone back to the earliest historical authorities much earlier than those to which Gibbon was able to refer, and belonging to the second and third centuries after the Hegira—but he has also undertaken to examine critically the character of their evidence, and to sift their statements according to certain rules of probability applicable to the case. Then, he has his theory of Mahomet's character and pretensions, elaborately drawn out, and supported by proof derived from a minute and careful consideration of the materials supplied by these two branches of evidence.

The most authentic information which we have about Mahomet

by proof derived from a minute and careful consideration of the materials supplied by these two branches of evidence.

The most authentic information which we have about Mahomet is in the Koran. Mr. Muir, on a review of what is said of the history of its compilation, accepts it as a genuine "storehouse of Mahomet's words recorded during his life." But those facts of his career to which its allusions are undoubted are, after all, comparatively few; and those on which it throws "clear and important light" are fewer still. It might, indeed, render a paramount service in showing the growth and unfolding of Mahomet's thoughts, if only we had its Suras in the order in which

[•] The Life of Mahomet. By William Muir, Esq., Bengal Civil Service. London: Smith, Elder, and Co. Vols. I. and II., 1858. Vols. III. and IV., 1861.

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they were composed; but the arrangement of the present Koran has no reference to the order of time. There is, in fact, no principle of arrangement or connexion to be traced in it. To render it serviceable in an historical point of view, Mr. Muir undertakes the bold task of fixing, approximately at least, the chronological sequence of its chapters. There is scarcely anything to guide him but internal evidence. Mahometan tradition on the subject he considers absolutely untrustworthy. Mr. Muir relies on a careful and repeated perusal and a minute examination of the style and contents of the several chapters. He offers the result, indeed, as but conjectural and imperfect; but, at the same time, some of the most important parts of his book are built upon it. Doubtless there are chronological marks impressed, as Mr. Muir points out, not on particular chapters, which were made up by the compilers of the Koran out of materials of widely different dates—but on particular sentences or paragraphs; and by such marks, where they occur, we may make a rough and partial distribution into earlier and later portions. Doubtless also the judgment on style and manner of a competent and careful and by such marks, where they occur, we may make a rough and partial distribution into earlier and later portions. Doubtless also the judgment on style and manner of a competent and careful scholar is of great weight. But, taken as a whole, Mr. Muir's arrangement seems to us as precarious as Ewald's attempts to classify the materials of the Pentateuch, and to fix the historical order of the Psalms. The utter absence of any external ground is made up for by an exaggerated and unphilosophical reliance on differences of language, and on the fitting-in of the given date with a theory which suits it. Mr. Muir bases his account of the beginning of Mahomet's prophetic career almost entirely on the character of the Suras produced at that time. If we had any means of knowing that these Suras were the earliest, there would be much to rely upon. But we can find no evidence, no presumption even, as to the age of these chapters, except that Mr. Muir lays stress on their being short, and on their fire and energy. It is curious to observe his own different ways of speaking about them. When he introduces them into his text, as illustrative of the feelings and changes presumed to be going on in the Prophet's mind, he quotes them with reserve. "Certain Suras may perhaps belong to this period;" "the famous First Sura, though probably adapted subsequently to public worship, contains, perhaps, the germ of his daily prayer." But further on, in stating his theory of the progress of Mahomet's views, he lays aside the language of conjecture, and assumes as certain that these Suras were the first, in order to point out how later ones differed from them. He describes "the gradual decline of life and spirit" in the Koran even during the first few years of the Prophet's career:—

Byen during this short time, a marked change may be traced both in the

Byen during this short time, a marked change may be traced both in the sentiment and the composition of the Coran. At first, like a mountain stream, the ourrent dashes headlong, fierer, wild, impetuous. Such are the fragments described and quoted in the third chapter. As we advance, the style becomes calmer and more uniform; yet ever and anon, a tumultuous rhapsody, like the unexpected cataract, interposes thrilling words of ardent conviction and fervid aspiration. Advancing still, though the dancing stream sometimes sparkles and the foam decrives the eye, we trace a rapid devine in the natural impiration, and even the mingling in it of grosser elements. There is yet, indeed, a wide difference from the turbid, tame, and sluggish course of later days; but the tendency towards it cannot be mistaken. The decay of life is now supplied by artificial expedients. Elaborate periods and the measured cadence of a rhyming prose convey too often only unmeaning truisms and silly fiction. Although we still meet with powerful reasonings against idolatry, and the burning words of a living faith, yet the chief substance of the Coran begins to be composed of native legends expanded by the Prophet's imagination. It is interesting to watch the gradual lengthening of the Suras. . . . Up to within a short time of the emigration to Medina, the Suras appear to have been produced generally entire at one time, as we now find them. Subsequently it became Mahomet's practice to throw together, according to their subject-matter, verse given forth at different times, which issues reason why the later Suras are of such great length.

No doubt these variations in the matter of the Koran and its

No doubt these variations in the matter of the Koran and its mode of distribution are highly deserving of attention. But who mode of distribution are highly deserving of attention. But who would not have supposed, from reading the above, that the order and relative position and antiquity of its several parts were as clearly ascertained, and offered as sure ground for reasoning, as the sequence of the Waverley Novels? Yet, in fact, Mr. Muir's arrangement is, with the exception of a comparatively small number of portions, purely conjectural, and mainly depends on his own belief that he has found the key to the development of Mahamet's teaching.

homet's teaching.

Besides the Koran, which they compiled and fixed in its present form, the immediate companions of Mahomet have left no written record. But the mass of accounts which proceeded from them or were traced up to them was something absolutely without example; and in the course of time these traditions were collected with the greatest avidity. There is nothing in history like the Mussulman traditions and the Mussulman gatherers of them. Mussulman traditions and the Mussulman gatherers of them. The search for traditions by travelling and personal inquiry became a new profession. All Bockari, two hundred years after Mahomet, devoted his life, from his eighteenth year, to the work, passing from land to land, and "going to see the traditionists in all the great cities, and wherever he might hope to find some trace of the Prophet lingering in men's memories, in previous collections, or infamily archives." His wanderings resulted in the discovery of 600,000 traditions then current; while Abu Daud, another collector, gathered 500,000. Nor were they random collectors. They spoke of beholding in a dream the Prophet, from whom they drawe away the flies; and this was interpreted to mean that their duty was to drive away lies far from him. They exacted rigorously what they considered a severe test of truth. The genealogy of each single tradition must be unimpeachably traced up to a companion of Mahomet; and each single link in the chain

must be a witness of authority. "A tradition," says Mr. Muir, "is always given in the direct form of speech in which it was supposed to have been originally uttered. Thus—'A informed me, saying that B had spoken to the effect that C had told him, saying D mentioned, that he heard E relate, that he had listened to F, who said, I heard G inquiring of Ayesha, What food did the Prophet of the Lord like? and she replied, Verily, he loved sweet-meat and honey, and greatly relished a pumpkin." Out of the 400,000 names thus appealed to, they rejected all but 2000, or, as another account says, 226. Out of the 600,000 traditions which Al Bokhari collected, he received only 4000, while Abu Daud threw saide, of his 500,000, all but 4800. Mr. Muir thinks that the collectors were scrupulously honest in carrying out their system, and in recording, exactly as they heard it, each tradition which answered their test, even though it might be the contradictory of the one next to it. But they had not a thought of any other kind of test than that of the names on whose authority the tradition, received or rejected as a whole, was quoted. From such sources were compiled the earliest biographies of Mahomet which have reached us—biographies which appear to have been considered the standard and most authoritative ones up to the close of the third century of the Hegira. (Muir i. p. cii.) The collection of materials is indeed enormous; but its real value is very disappointing. It is in its nature, and from the special circumstances of Mahometan history, as a mass, wholly untrustworthy. There can be no doubt that much truth is mixed up with it; but where is the criterion of what is true and genuine to be found? Mr. Muir lays down a series of canons which in their application exclude a great proportion of this vast mass of traditional information from any claim to credit. They exclude almost entirely all that relates to Mahomet's early history. Mr. Muir also lays down the guarantees which, when existing, give ground for relying on these trad

satisfactory investigation of the more delicate and subtle questions connected with the first beginnings of Mahomet's prophetic course. Whence the impulse came, how it was fostered, what elements were combined in it, what was the first form of his undertaking, and what were the changes that gradually grow upon it—whether, from the first, Mahomet believed himself a Prophet, and contemplated a new and comprehensive religion, or only began as a Warner and a Preacher of righteousness, applying from time to time, to his purpose whatever fragments of only began as a Warner and a Preacher of righteousness, applying, from time to time, to his purpose whatever fragments of information about neighbouring creeds came in his way, till he found himself unconsciously the propounder of a rival, and at last an exclusive one—are questions to which recent researches have shown that we can scarcely look for trustworthy answers. These inquiries have excluded the old coarse notion of simple conscious imposture; but the theory which is to supply its place must depend mainly on what each inquirer thinks most likely to have happened under the circumstances. Mr. Muir's is an intelligible and sober view, but not a new one. He looks upon Mahomet as a man of fervent and earnest nature, who sought to awaken in others the overwhelming convictions of God and judgment which he felt himself—who mistook these convic sought to awaken in others the overwhelming convictions of God and judgment which he felt himself—who mistook these convictions for inspiration, and gradually went the way of many other leaders of religious revivals, only under circumstances more than usually favourable for his growth into the character of a Divine messenger. But all that can be really said of this view is, that things are very likely to have come about in this way. The most interesting portion in Mahomet's prophetic history—the Meccan portion—is, in reality, lost to us in all but its bare outlines. Even its external events are still left without explanation. It is difficult to understand the relentless persecutions, and, at the same time, the remarkable forbearance from violent measures, on the part of the Koreish. And though Mr. Muir gives, from the traditional accounts, a curious and circumstantial narrative of the singular way in which Mahomet got a footing at Medina, the real cause accounts, a curious and circumstantial narrative of the singular way in which Mahomet got a footing at Medina, the real cause of this remarkable and unexpected crisis, though not beyond conjecture, cannot be said to be ascertained. The Jewish element in the Koran and its religion is evident; but the relations of Mahomet to the Arabian Jews, the views which he held in respect of them, and the changes which those views underwent—though Mr. Muir lays great stress on what he considers that he has; made out about them—still seem to us surrounded with great uncertainty. Mahomet's life at Medina is better known to us; but that, though full of romantic adventure, is the vulgar part of his career as a Prophet. One of the most remarkable and best-attested facts in Mahomet's course is his moral deterioration at Medina. The self-command and chastity of his youth and manhood were succeeded by an outbreak of deliberate and measured, yet exorbitant sensuality in his old age, which his admirers even looked

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upon with admiration as characteristic of his greatness. Arab manners are ferocious, but the assassinations of Medina are cold-blooded and treacherous beyond the ordinary lengths of Arab ferocity; and whatever may have been the case at Mecca, there is no doubt that at Medina divine inspiration was alleged, in the coarsest and clumsiest way, to sanction and command whatever he wished, whether concerning public policy or family arrangement. The Koran became, as Mr. Muir says, "a vehicle for 'general orders,' "such as a Puritan leader might issue; and it also smoothed matters over in the seandal about Ayesha, and freed the prophet from his ignominiously-extorted promise to give up the company of his Coptic slave Mary. The belief in the special providence of God pervaded his life, and was never out of his thoughts; but the belief was as strong to license and consecrate wrong as to enforce right. The wonder has passed away from Mahomet at Medina. He there appears as an Oriental religious party chief of an ordinary type, doing undoubted evil for the sake of mixed good ends. Mr. Muir is struck by the ability which he showed in keeping together discordant elements in Medina, and in attracting and retaining under his influence the neighbouring tribes and his old rivals at Mecca. But his part. after all, appears insignificant when compared with the power of gathering together and wielding the Tartar tribes displayed by Genghis or Timur. All that was great and fruitful in Islam had been brought to life before we begin to know Mahomet.

A history in which great tracts of the subject can only be treated of conjecturally, is written at a disadvantage; and Mr. Muir's book is under this disadvantage. He has not only to narrate, but often to narrate doubtfully, and to enter argumentatively into the reasons why he so tells his story. This retards the progress of the narrative; and besides, it must be said that Mr. Muir is inclined to be diffuse, and space is taken up in pursuing surmises which are incapable of verification, or w

authentic information which the Mahometan writers can supply; it is an equal service that he has taken such pains to set the true value on this information, and to point out the limit within which we may hope to ascertain facts. His last two volumes, though long, give a very vivid picture of Mahomet's rule at Medina, with all its incidents of danger, heroism, and crime. The Arab historians were great recorders of sayings, and Mr. Muir is, with much judgment, careful to reproduce these, which tell us more about the time than perhaps anything else remaining, and help us to take a truer measure of the actors in it. The death of Mahomet is finely told. There is considerable discrepancy in the original accounts of it, as the surviving chiefs felt their respective claims to power affected by what had passed during the Prophet's last days. But the main circumstances seem clear; and they are very fully related by Mr. Muir, and with great simplicity and feeling. His narrative of the gradual drawing near of the end—of Mahomet's solemn night visit to the grave-yard—of the mingling of pathetic incidents with grotesque ones, like his obliging his wives to give each other the physic they had yard—of the mingling of pathetic incidents with grotesque ones, like his obliging his wives to give each other the physic they had made him take—of the outburst of fierce denunciation against made him take—of the outburst of fierce denunciation against Jews and Christians, interrupting the singularly composed and tender character which marked the general tenor of those days, full of submission, trust, and hope, and without a shade of affectation—of his unexpected appearance and leave-taking in the mosque on the last morning, and of the effect of their great loss on his friends—is in the greatest degree affecting and impressive. The manly tenderness of Abn-bacr, and the stunned incredulity of Omar, are of all times; but it is strange how like such a death-bed can be made to seem to that of a Christian saint.

COURT LIFE AT NAPLES.*

A NYONE who only looked at the outside of this book would be likely to do it great injustice. Its title is as bad as could have been chosen, for it makes the book wear every appearance of being one of those trashy compilations run up to hit off the subject of the day. Naples has been much talked of lately, and so it was highly probable that a heap of book-makers would throw together a little scandal about Bomba and Bombino, mix up a few rhapsodies about Sorrento and Portici, plagiarize from Murray, and turn out a marketable book. These unlucky volumes also appear in a cream-coloured binding, decorated with those curious heraldic devices now in fashion among publishers. The one most prominent on this work informs us, in all the luxury of contorted gilt printing, that Messrs. Saunders and Otley are Sans Changer. But the reader who goes beyond the outside soon discovers that he has got hold of a far better book than could have been expected. Such a work can, indeed, scarcely aspire to a permanent place on the bookshelf; but it is seldom that a book of transitory value has so much real, indisputable merit, is so pleasant and new, and so full of the sort of information that is so agreeable to receive and so difficult to procure. It is a story of modern Neapolitan life, and shows an intimate knowledge of Neapolitans of the upper classes, of their domestic life, of their petty, slavish,

cowardly characters, of their dirt, ignorance, and knavery, which could only have been acquired through the painful channel of personal experience. But it is not enough to know a foreign country. In order to describe it, a writer must have a sensibility and tast which will teach him to put before English people what they will beer and will be willing to read. Nothing is more insufferably dull than a novel laid in a foreign country, where everything is unknown to us, full of names and terms which are seen for the first time, and so contrived that all interest is defeated by a senseless shifting from one unintelligible situation to another. This work, on the contrary, is very agreeable reading. The authoress has his to perchaps an instinct, in writing which saves her from being a bore, and she makes us laugh or frown at her silly, dirty Neapolitans, without wishing to get rid of them. To people who care about Italian politics, it is as instructive a book as they can easily put their hands on; and to those who value a novel because it is a novel, it is a fresh, interesting, well-written story. The machinery on which the authoress has hit to produce the desired effect is ingenious. She makes her heroine—a good English; rector—marry a vagabond Neapolitan prince. The love-making is got over early in the book. The father is displeased, the mother sad, but the young couple are determined, and are supported through all, the lady by love and the gentleman by a wish for the lady's fine fortune. They marry and set off for Naples. At first the Prince is kind and attentive. But there is an awfet mother-in-law who rules the house, and who is fifthy and bigoted beyond conception. She hates her heretic daughter-in-law, and in course of time the Prince becomes, to use a mild word, indifferent. He is looked on coldly at Court because his wife will not change her religion, and he begins to tease her to make so very trifug a concession. Helen, however, is firm, and the merit of her firmness is enhanced by the contrast of another wi

drance to bringing up her daughter as a Protestant heiress ought to be brought up.

This machinery makes the book agreeable, for the character and fortunes of Helen are very well described; but the real merit and novelty of the book are not in the story, but in the descriptions of Neapolitan life. Of the descriptions offered as such we do not think much. There are sketches of the scenery round Naples, and there are descriptions of strange customs and ceremonies obtaining and celebrated there, of the liquefaction of the blood of the great Neapolitan saint, of the funeral of a Royal prince, and of the launching of a new frigate. All these are good in their way, but they are the sort of descriptions that may be met in most clever books of travel. What is special in this book is the portraiture of Neapolitan character by the skilful accumulation of scattered details. The Prince and his mother are the two characters on whom the authoress has bestowed most pains, and her success amply repays the labour it has cost her. The extreme dirt, untidiness, ignorance, bigotry, and pride of the old Princesa are driven into us by degrees. At first, we do not comprehend anything so un English; but in course of time we attach a meaning and reality and life to this bundle of filth, meanness, and vanity.

Court Life at Nayles in our own Times. By the Author of "La.Cara." london: Saunders, Otley, and Co. 1861.

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In the same way, the character of the Prince dawns on us as a type of the real Neapolitan noble—of the kind of empty, cowardly, boasting, cruel creature who has been the especial creation of Bourbon misrule. He is not altogether detestable at first, for he Bourbon misrule. He is not altogether detestable at first, for he is gentlemanly, easy-going, and rather amused with the notion of any one loving him so fondly and sincerely as Helen does. But as the influence of his old companions begins to tell—as he comes more and more under the sway of his mother and the priests—as he feels the increasing fear of Royal displeasure—his brutality comes to the surface, and, with ruin staring him in the face, he comes to the surface, and, with ruin staring him in the face, he gets savage in proportion as he becomes more and more reckless. If it were not for that most fortunate cargo of gunpowder, there is no saying what he would not have done to his wife. However, all ends happily, and his cigar brings Helen peace and happiness and a thankful lowly calm after all her troubles. We are not sorry he should meet his fate; and in fact our eagerness to know how the story can ever be brought to any conclusion at all, harmonizes very well with the splendid completeness of the catastrophe. But still the authoress has so managed that the development of his character interests us more than it shocks us, and we lose our sense of his meanness and ruffianism in the pleasure of knowing what a Neapolitan nobleman is really like. politan nobleman is really like.

meanness and ruffianism in the pleasure of knowing what a Neapolitan nobleman is really like.

The story is spread over several years, for Helen's little girl is old enough to be saved by her papa's fortunate explosion from the toils of a Catholic governess; and at the end we are carried down to the last years of Bomba. It all the authoress tells us is true, strange things went on at his Court before he died. There was something quite Oriental both in the savagery of his caprices and in the slavish submission with which his people, and especially his nobles, cowered beneath him, and shouted out louder and louder that he was divine. The history of Poerio and his companion has made all the world acquainted with the sad fate assigned to those whom the King feared, or suspected he might one day fear. The description of the sorrows of Miss Brown's Count takes us therefore over old ground. But the little cruelties and the petty insolence of the King, and the abject terrors of his courtiers, furnish a newer theme and one that can only be worked out by a series of small touches. The treatment of the English at that time especially illustrated what a King can stoop to and nobles applaud. It was a certain road to Royal disfavour if any noble was seen to consort with or speak to an Englishman, or to do any act of civility or politeness to one at a public place. And yet the King issued the most positive orders to avoid every ground of public offence which the English as a nation could take up. The English were to be the victims of the pettiest spite, but no open offence was to be offered. The authoress appears to have suffered under some of the indignities she describes, and even at this distance of time, feels them acutely. Meantime, although they obeyed the King implicitly, the nobles did not hesitate to confide to the English their sentiments of wonder that the English fleet did not interfere and set these timid wretches free from the tyranny that they so richly deserved. It is the revelation of the general character of so intimately acquainted with them strangely belies them, they are a miserable set. On the one hand, this is a great drawback are a miserable s.t. On the one hand, this is a great drawback to Italy and a serious hindrance to the real union of the South and North. But, on the other hand, we may be sure that such men are not capable of seriously contending against a free government. They may grumble and plot against Victor Emmanuel, but they will quail like beaten hounds whenever they are seriously threatened. Years, and perhaps generations, must elapse before Southern Italy is tenanted by a courageous, self-respecting, self-helping race, but its present miserable occupants are as incapable of resisting as they are of creating a good, honourable, and firm Government.

PASSAGLIA ON THE ITALIAN CAUSE.*

THIS is the most recent work of Passaglia, and is the famous one which has entailed upon its author the honours of expulsion from Rome, his necessary flight to the protection of the King of Italy, the deprivation of his professorship, and the honours of the Index. Like another Jerome—and the resemblance might be extended to his style as well as to his fortunes, to his temper equally with his persecution—he has not disdained the protection of one of those honourable women who from the first ages have extended their hospitable care to confessors; and the protection of one of those honourable women who from the first ages have extended their hospitable care to confessors; and Mrs. Foljambe, or, as Reuter's telegrams expressed it, Madame Fulgens, recals with sufficient accuracy the memory of Paula and Eustochium. St. Jerome is one of the four great doctors of the Latin Church, and Passaglia's learning and bad Latin are quite equal to those of the author of the Vulgate. The Latin Church of our times has not produced anything equal, or even second, to Passaglia; and the gravity and importance of his adhesion to the popular cause in Italy is enhanced by the circumstance that he is, above all challenge, the very first theologian of his day.

There is no occasion, especially after the full and interesting

details which have appeared in the Italian correspondence of the Morning Post, to pursue the remarkable history of his persecution and flight; but it may be well to mark his place in the literary history of the Roman Church. He is a Jesuit, and, more than ten years ago, he published a regular systematic defence of the Papal Supremacy, full, after the old Roman manner, of ponderous and ill-arranged learning (Commentarius de prerogativis B. Petri Apostolorum principis). The title is a sufficient account of its tendency. This was followed, as befitted an orthodox champion of the strictest faith, by a treatise De Eternilate Panarum deque igne inferno. The work, however, on which his fame will always rest, and the consequences of which it is impossible to exaggerate, is his celebrated treatise on the Immaculate Conception. He was formally commissioned by the Pope to construct this large and elaborate commissioned by the Pope to construct this large and elaborate defence of the new doctrine about to be erected into an Article defence of the new doctrine about to be erected into an Article of Faith. It consists of three quarto volumes, which almost reduce to the limits of portability the controversial tomes of Bellarmine, and carry us back to the length and, in all senses of the word, the exhaustive fecundity of Aquinas; and it was not only written to order, but has been universally accepted as the official and authoritative exposition of what is now to be received as Catholic doctrine, under the supreme sanction. Passaglia, then, is the chosen champion and defender of the Roman faith in its last and extremest form. He is the most learned man in the Latin Church—its apologist and defender. He is the right hand of orthodoxy, its agent and most constant partisan, selected as the mouthpiece of Rome in its hour of need.

We are not aware whether the instrument, like other instruments, was forgotten as soon as it had answered its purpose, or

We are not aware whether the instrument, like other instruments, was forgotten as soon as it had answered its purpose, or whether Passaglia received any other reward than that of a professorship in the Roman University for his Apology for the Immaculate Conception. It might be easy to suggest that neglect has not been without its influence on the recent career of Passaglia, but we can establish no ground for such a surmise. At any rate, the circumstances of the case do not require it. With an ostentatious richness of circumlocution and commonplace, the author of the Plea for the Cause of Italy, not only in the body of the work, but in the special introduction, repeats his firm belief in an authorized Roman teaching, and reasserts the Supremacy, and exaggerates the privileges of St. repeats his firm belief in an authorized Roman teaching, and reasserts the Supremacy, and exaggerates the privileges of St. Peter and his successors. Ut non minus in uno Petro ejusdemque legitimis successoribus unitas ecclesiae catholicæ figuraretur, quam ut ner insum Petroneira. que legitimis successoribus unitas ecclesiae catholicae jaguraretur, quam ut per ipsum Petrum ejusque legittimos successores, tamquam per supremos ejusdem administros, sub ipso et cum ipso unitas ecclesiae catholicae conficeretur confectaque servaretur. It is true that he insists with much dignity on the claims of the second order of the ministry to counsel and advise their superiors, It is true that he insists with much dignity on the claims of the second order of the ministry to counsel and advise their superiors, as well as throws out pregnant hints on the independent duties of bishops, and even goes the length of quoting the famous passage in Tertullian, ubi tree, ecclesia est, licet laici. But there must be no suspicion that Passaglia is a reformer in doctrine, or that he is likely to be the herald of what, in the fervid aspirations of British Protestantism, is hoped to be the dawning of that oft-deferred event—the Italian Reformation. Italy is not likely to take up the Prayer-book and "Dearly beloved Brethren"—still less to accept the ways and talk of Protestantism; and Passaglia is an Italian to the backbone. And, after all, he may be a good Jesuit still. All that he does is, in fact, what the wavy and active followers of Loyola have always preached and practised. There is no novelty in the political liberalism of a Jesuit father. The apologists of tyrannicide are not likely to make wry faces at the constitutionalism of Victor Emmanuel. What Passaglia does is to accept the clear logic of events. He says that the question of the legality or illegality of the means by which the kingdom of Italy came into existence is gone by. Sit nec ne, sin minus jure, facto saltem coque completo Italiae regnum constitutum. This, he says—with an allusion which from any other than an ecclesiastic might be considered irreverent—is one of those facts which we see with considered irreverent—is one of those facts which we see with our eyes, and our ears have heard, and our hands touch. This fact, or any other political fact, any sensible Romanist, that is, any Romanist of the old school, would accept and turn to his own purposes. We do not think that Passaglia is to be credited with looking further than this, or that there is the least contradiction between the doctrinal apologist of the Immaculate Conception and the political apologist of the cause of Italy. The man is the same man. In either case he supplies a given cause with the very best possible defence. He writes, as it were, to order. To use Mr. Newman's well-known allusion, he throws himself into a continuous and does him between the terms and the statement. use Mr. Newman's well-known allusion, he throws himself into a position, and does his best as a commissioned agent. He turns out what the occasion requires. He supplies the Church on one occasion, the Italian clergy on the other, with the very best and most quotable and reliable thing which they want for this occasion, and this only. Passaglia sees that a justification is wanted for a given fact, and he sets to work and manufactures it accordingly—a very rest article full of patristic quotations, and done in ly—a very neat article, full of patristic quotations, and done up in the old scholastic form.

His mind is so saturated with the old spirit and the old way of

doing things, that his apology has a very dull, and if it is read for its political significance, a rather inferior look. It is full of terrible padding, and it fails to produce those arguments on which other than an ecclesiastical mind would dwell. Indeed, it might be very well retorted upon its author that the justification for what really is the point at stake is singularly beside the dispute. But Passaglia knows very well that he is not open to

^{*} Pro Caussa Italica: ad Episcopos Catholicos. Actore Presbytero Catholico. Florentine: Typis Felicis le Monnier. 1861. Per la Causa Italiana: ai Vescovi Cattolici: Apologie di un Prete Cattolico. Versione dal Latino, di Alessandro Ferranti, approvata dall' Autore. Firenze: Felice le Monnier. 1861.

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this reply from those whom he is addressing. He is remonstrating with the Italian bishops, and he urges upon his audience only those topics which they at least dare not dispute. The suppression of the Papal temporalities he alludes to, and though what he says is to the purpose, it is not much; but the substance of his pamphlet consists of vague platitudes extracted from the Fathers, with a copiousness and rush of monotonous iteration, on the duty of bishops cultivating friendly relations with their flocks. He deplores the sad spectacle of the isolation between the Italian clergy and the laity. He says that, as the laity will not take the clerical view of Italian affairs, the clergy had better accept the lay view. This, though couched in very decorous language, is only the old Jesuit doctrine of the necessity of the Church sailing with the stream, accommodating itself to all conditions of life, and making its own interest out of everything—of course, out of republics as well as out of despotisms, of the weaknesses as well as of the virtues of the flock. That the chances of his attracting a favourable audience are but slight, we may judge, when it has been found necessary by the Italian Government to issue such a circular as that signed by M. Miglieri, the text of which appeared in the Morning Post of yesterday.

we may judge, when it has been found necessary by the Italian Government to issue such a circular as that signed by M. Miglieri, the text of which appeared in the Morning Post of yesterday.

It would not, however, be fair to Passaglia to charge his defence of the cause of Italy with weakness. It meets the case with the arguments which his opponents, the Bishops, require; and it meets it on their grounds. Its object being special, its argument is special; and if it meets poor objections with poor replies, there is a congruity at which he aims. The only clerical argument which Passaglia combats is that of the supposed illegality of the expulsion of the Neapolitan king and the other rulers of Italy. This he meets in the old regular scholastic way. It is doubtful whether the illegality was so great, or whether it existed at all. At any rate, the illegality, if it existed, was not formally, was not officially, condemned. In doubtful and only probable cases, and in cases not settled by authority, it is unsafe for the Bishops to prejudge—still more for them to conclude without formal proof. Their conduct in excommunicating their flocks, or in keeping them out of church, is informal, and therefore unwise. In doubtful cases, do not do what is manifestly against your interest. It is your interest to keep a flock; for a shepherd without sheep, and a Church without laity, is rather absurd. This is not a very high flight of morality; but Passaglia knows the men he is addressing. And then he justifies the accommodating policy and ethics which he recommends by examples. Gregory the Greatrecognised and complimented Phocas the usurper, and so on. He might have chosen better, though more offensive, precedents. On the question of the cession of the Papal temporalities he goes as far as he dares, though that perhaps may not be said to be very far. He says that the Pope's personal oath to preserve the temporalities must be consistent with the sensible limitation, "as long as he can"—an observation which is true enough, but, as a mo venient to recal the origin of the said temporalities. Not a word about the feigned donation of Constantine. Not a word about the underhand and traitorous dealings of the Popes of the time with Pepin and Charlemagne. Not a word about the fact that even they did not recognise the divine origin of the patrimony of St. Peter. Not a word about the fact that the donation of Constantine, the real foundation of the Roman temporalities, was never heard of till 872. Not a word about the fact that the temporalities, even as late as the end of the tenth century, were regranted to the Pope by Otho as an Imperial grant and an ordinary fief, not at all as a Levitical patrimony, when he resettled the Pope's title to his dominions, vitiated as it had hitherto been both by forged title-deeds and irregular alienations. All this, which is the strong argument against the temporalities, so good a Catholic as Passaglia could not, in decency at least, address to the ears polite of the Catholic bishops.

PRIVATE DIARY OF SIR ROBERT WILSON. Second Notice.

THE Allies were encouraged to make their grand attack on Leipsic by the expectation that, if it succeeded, Bavaria would take active part with them against the French. The allied army, advancing out of Bohemia, was to be divided into five columns of attack, numbering in all about 180,000 men. On another side, the armies of Blucher and the Crown Prince of Sweden were to press simultaneously upon the French position. Altogether, not less than 300,000 men were put in motion by the Allies. Sir Robert Wilson estimated that Napoleon could employ against them from 180,000 to 200,000 men, but it is to be observed that he seems rather apt to overrate the power of the enemy. The attack began on the 16th October, and was pressed throughout that day without result. General Merfeldt, who

commanded one of the attacking columns, was taken prisoner by the French, carried to Napoleon, and by him sent back to the Austrians with proposals of peace. Sir Robert Wilson met Merfeldt on his return, heard from him the purport of his conversation with Napoleon, and wrote a hasty account of it for Lord Aberdeen, who was now at the Austrian head-quarters. The paper was by mistake delivered to Sir Charles Stuart, who immediately despatched it to England, and appears to have gained, by his promptitude in transmitting this valuable intelligence, the credit which properly belonged to Sir Robert Wilson. Merfeldt reported that Napoleon, after the first day's battle, "looked fagged, but that otherwise he was in good health." After two days' interval the battle was renewed on the 19th, and lasted all that day, but still nothing decisive was accomplished. "The Russians and Prussians lost an infinite number of men against Probatheyda by unakilful management, but not the fault of the Prince Marshal." It appears from a letter to Lord Aberdeen that this paragraph alludes to the mischievous interference of the Emperor either of Austria or Russia—it is not quite clear which of them—with the arrangements of Schwarzenberg and Radetsky. When Napoleon had the hope of these or greater blunders in the hostile camp, it is not wonderful that he should have maintained the struggle. However, he had now determined to retreat, leaving a rearguard to hold Leipsic. On the morning of the 20th, the Allies renewed the attack and forced the suburbs. The confusion of the French retreat recalled the memory of the Beresina, and the death of Poniatowski excited the regret alike of friends and enemies. Yet, in the judgment of Sir Robert Wilson, Napoleon lost no military credit by this great reverse. It must be remembered that the Saxon troops went over to the Allies during the battle, and it was known to Napoleon that Bavaria would join them, and endeavour to close his retreat into France. Yet he baffled the Allies in two days' fighting, and he s

feared dissensions among the Allies, and he still continued to urge the expediency of peace on moderate terms.

Soon after the great event of Leipsic, Sir Robert Wilson was transferred from Germany to Italy. He appears to have been the fittest possible man for the post we have seen him occupying, and it appears, moreover, that the evidence of his fitness was brought clearly before the British Government; but nevertheless an irreversible decree went forth from Downing-street for his supersession. The place of Commissioner at the head-quarters of the Austrian grand army had been promised by Lord Castlereagh to Lord Burghersh, afterwards so well known as Lord Westmoreland, and that promise must at every cost be kept. The opinion of Lord Aberdeen was expressed plainly that he, as ambassador, would find the tried and trusted comrade of the Austrian generals far more useful as Military Commissioner than the unknown lieutenant-colonel whom the Foreign Office proposed to force upon him. The wishes of the Emperor of Russia, of the Emperor of Austria, of Metternich, and of Schwarzenberg were loudly declared that Sir Robert Wilson should continue to play in the allied army a part that could be so well played by no one else. But all this went for absolutely nothing. It never could be allowed that British appointments to service amid Continental armies should be regulated by the wishes of those with whom the appointees would have to serve. The testimony to Sir Robert Wilson's peculiar qualifications for the post of Commissioner was set aside by Lord Castlereagh as irrelevant. That saying, so familiar to our own ears, "the right man in the right place," had not been even dreamed of in 1813 as applicable to the conduct of a bloody and costly war. Soldiers died and people paid their taxes, until France, by her insane ambition, had so far weakened herself that the task of finishing the war against her might be safely treated as a mere piece of official patronage. Sir Robert Wilson remarks that the motto of one of his decoration

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lutely of no account in Downing-street. He states that Schwarzenberg and Metternich had frequently spoken to him on the subject. The latter was commanded by the Emperor to express his sense of the great services of Sir Robert Wilson, and to state his wishes that he should continue with the army. The former told Lord Aberdeen that he would as soon part with Radetsky—that Wilson was admitted to all their councils, and that they had the most entire confidence in his zeal and talents. His services in the field had been most conspicuous. "On the 16th of October, at Leipsic—which day was saved by the brilliant conduct of the Austrian cavalry under Nostitz—Schwarzenberg declares the success to be chiefly owing to the intelligence and able dispositions of Wilson." But, great as were his military services, they fell short of those which he had rendered out of the field. From his intimate knowledge of the Russian and Prussian armies, and the great respect invariably shown to him by the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia, he was able to do a thousand things which no one else could do. He was the means of making up a difference between the King and Schwarzenberg which was of the utmost importance. It is added by Lord Aberdeen, that Schwarzenberg, in speaking of Sir Robert Wilson's removal, "had absolutely cried with vexation"—a curious proof that he was in carnest. "He says that, in the disagreeable sort of command which he has over Russians and Prussians, if it were not for Wilson, there are many things which he should never venture to propose. In the field it has frequently happened that he has sent Wilson to persuade Russian officers—nay, even the Emperor himself—to do what he would not otherwise have thought of." We may feel a patriotic pride in the fact that our country produced at the same time a soldier who deserved, and a minister capable of disregarding, these representations. There is something almost grand in the attitude of Lord Castlereagh. He works ostensibly for the triumph of the Alliance, and it wou e the Foreign Office in its appointments.

Besides his attachments among the Austrians, Sir Robert Wilson lost, by his transfer to Italy, the opportunity of serving under Lord Aberdeen, a chief whom he trusted and respected. He expresses in many passages the highest estimate of Lord Aberdeen's capacity as a diplomatist, as well as of his friendly and honourable disposition towards himself. One of his notices of Lord Aberdeen's capacity as a diplomatist, as well as of his friendly and honourable disposition towards himself. One of his notices of honourable disposition towards himself. One of his notices of Lord Aberdeen deserves quotation, as containing a sort of prediction of the Coalition Cabinet. "By principles, Aberdeen belongs to us. He is a liberal politician, and a man of high independent spirit, with a very reasoning mind, in which there is no inextirpatable prejudice. I should have thought that Lord Grey and he would have been inseparables; and so they would have been, if accident had favoured nature, and brought them more in communication." Sir Robert Wilson was a severe, and in his private diary an unreserved critic, so that the unblemished picture which he has left of Lord Aberdeen is a high testimony to the ability as well as to the character of that statesman. The British ambassador to Russia, Lord Catheart, to whom Sir Robert Wilson was at first attached, does not escape so easily. If it be said that this difference may be explained by Lord Aberdeen's support of the writer's claims to the consideration of his Government, it may be said, on the other side, that the support of Lord Aberdeen is a proof of the writer's merit.

This volume contains many curious, and sometimes not very

This volume contains many curious, and sometimes not very creditable, particulars of distinguished personages. The glimpses which we get of Bernadotte, the Crown Prince of Sweden, and of with the get of bernadotte, the Crown France of Sweden, and of Sir Charles Stuart, who was employed to keep this costly and suspected ally up to the mark of co-operation, are very amusing. Stuart and Wilson agree that Bernadotte is a great funfaron, and an egregious liar. It is said, after one of his battles, that his army had lost 15,000 Germans, and the little finger of a Swedish chasseur. After Leipsic, Sir R. Wilson writes:—"The Crown Deirec was still in the text when I was a thin a line of the contraction. army had lost 15,000 Germans, and the little finger of a Swedish chasseur. After Leipsic, Sir R. Wilson writes:—"The Crown Prince was still in the town when I went away, dressed like an opera-master. Stuart decidedly says that he not only did nothing, but wilfully avoided doing anything. On another occasion he writes:—"Stuart has greatly shocked some Swedes, by answering to an observation that prayers were put up in the churches for the Crown Prince's safety, "Nayez pas peur pour lui. It se conservera." Another famous character of that time, Murat, makes a quaint but pleasing figure. Sir R. Wilson was introduced to him in Italy, in March, 1814, when he was beginning to treat with the Allies. "Murat received me very amicably, and we had more than an hour's very interesting conversation on past military events, particularly those relating to the Russian campaign." It will be remembered that the writer had a principal share in the surprise of Murat at Spass Kouplia, in October, 1812, when his baggage, plate, and even his plume were taken. Murat's dress at this interview was singular. Hair curled, with two dependent ringlets; blue coat, red pantaloons, yallow shoes, with spurs; sword, with three pictures in the handle. "His countenance martial, his manners soft, his conversation easy and intelligent." The writer dined with him that evening. As King of Naples, he preserved a good deal of ceremony at the banquet; but his manners were very gracious. "After dinner we remained talking till near eleven o'clock. I fought with His Majesty all the battles over again which we had witnessed together. He was exceedingly interesting; very candid; and by no

means a Gascon for himself or his brethren in arms." We cannot help observing that Sir Robert Wilson got on as well with Murat as with Schwarzenberg or Beningsen, and we once more wonder that his versatile ability should have been so slightly valued by Lord Castlereagh. He was a representative of Britain in the Continental armies of whom she might well be proud. His services at Lutzen, Bautzen, Dresden, and Leipsic gained for him in the hearts of Austrians and Prussians a place as high as he had won in the affections of the Russian army by the campaigns of Eylau and of Moscow. If he was slighted and snubbed from home, he was called "our English general" by the Cossacks; he had received stars and crosses from three great sovereigns for his conspicuous services to them on fields of battle; and if he sometimes repined at his own country's niggardliness of substantial favours, he was consoled by that feeling which Lord Ellenborough lately so well expressed—that the profession to which he was devoted was the first of all professions, and that the first of all rewards was military honour. of all rewards was military honour.

THE CATHEDRALS OF ENGLAND.*

IT is curious that, although the Gothic revival in England has created a literature slike remarkable in quality and quantity, and already spread over a long series of years, yet one work, which it might have been supposed would be among the work, which it might have been supposed would be among the first offshoots, has up till this year remained unattempted. The manuals, histories, descriptions, essays, and so forth, of and upon mediæval architecture are innumerable, and yet a systematic portable account of all the English Cathedrals, compiled in the terms of modern architectural science, remained a desideratum. Mr. Murray accordingly deserves the thanks of the public for having, in concert with Messrs. Parker, undertaken that work, of which the first instalment—the "Southern Division," comprising Winchester, Salisbury, Exeter, Wells, Chichester, Canterbury, and Rochester Cathedrals—has appeared, in two volumes. The need of such an undertaking will be appreciated if we consider how little the student had to fall back upon who desired to form a comparative estimate of that most interesting and important series of buildings. Britton's Cathedral Antisquities, besides being in quarto, are incomplete. To be sure the plans and engravings, both picturesque and technical (mostly provided by young architects and artists who have since become famous), are before their age. But the letter-press due to that industrious compiler—who, with all his merits and all the good service he has done, was justly characterised as an "author who service he has done, was justly characterised as an "author could not write, and an artist who could not draw," to w might have been added, "an architect who could not build" could not write, and an artist who could not draw," to which might have been added, "an architect who could not build "—by its vulgar flippancy and illiterate sponginess, furnishes a complete set-off against any merits which the illustrations may possess. Storer's series, which appeared between forty and fifty years since, is in octavo, and includes all the Cathedrals of England and Wales, with plans. But a text much more ignorant and sourcilous than Storer's series, which appeared between forty and fifty years since, is in octavo, and includes all the Cathedrals of England and Wales, with plans. But a text much more ignorant and scurrilous than that of Britton accompanies a set of mean little picturesque engravings, which set at defiance all laws of perspective. Architectural details are quite wanting to this publication. So they are to the more pretentious work of the Winkles's, which appeared in numbers from about a quarter of a century to twenty years ago, in a large octave form. Here, too, fine writing of a very inferior quality, by Mr. Moule, supplies the place of accurate description, and the engravings are those flashy steel-plates which the happily defunct landscape annuals brought into vogue. In fact, but for the plans, neither Winkles's nor Storer's works are of the slightest value. Since the publication of the latest of these books, the knowledge and practice of Romanesque and Gothic architecture have made astonishing progress; and among the many works to which the movement has given birth, monographs of various cathedrals have appeared, by men of the highest reputation. Still, as we have said, the Handbook to the English Cathedrals had yet to be written, and the task has devolved upon an author whom we only know by the initials R. J. K.

The external appearance of the two volumes before us, which are in small octavo, is as attractive as it can be made by broad margins, clear type, and numerous exquisite woodents (both picturesque

The external appearance of the two volumes before us, which are in small octavo, is as attractive as it can be made by broad margins, clear type, and numerous exquisite woodcuts (both picturesque and technical), by Jewitt, Delamotte and Heaviside, Cooper, &c. Some of these are original and some selected from Mr. Murray's and Mr. Parker's previous publications, while photography has lent its aid to the preparation of such as are original. The book is also full of matter both original and selected, with an honest and copious reference to authorities. The notice of each cathedral is divided into two parts—the first, an architectural history and description of the building, and the second, a short history of the sec itself; while an occasional third part is introduced, treating of any disputed points of date or construction. In fact, the book is nearly being very satisfactory; but one unlucky error runs through its entire construction, which we are the more anxious to point out as it may be rectified in the future volumes. The author seems to have conceived that a handbook implies a tour-book; and like as it may be rectified in the future volumes. The author seems to have conceived that a handbook implies a tour-book; and like the ingenious producer of the Voyage autour de ma Chambre, he is perpetually promenading his reader about the cathedrals, and stopping to talk about this thing, and point out the other. We consider this to be a cardinal mistake. No two intelligent persons look at a cathedral in the same way, or walk about it in the same

Handbook to the Cathedrals of England—Southern Division. With lustrations. a vols. London: Murray. Oxford: J. H. and James

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manner. One visitor is first attracted by the general proportions, and another by the architectural details. This person thinks most of theritual fittings, and that one of the painted glass and monuments. None of them want to be walked round the building according to the pleasure of the Guide-book writer. There is no room for pedestrianism. Within the few hundred feet of length which sum up the longest church in the world, the more diversified the objects of interest are which its area includes, the more need there will be for accurate system in their description. In fact, in a Handbook to a Cathedral, as in so many other things, the more scientific—we do not mean abstruse—the descriptions are, the more clear and interesting they may be made to the students who read for elementary information and not for mere pastime. Viewed as a building, every medieval cathedral will, with few exceptions, prove to be either a storehouse of the various Round-arch and Pointed styles which prevailed in this country during the church-building centuries, or else a regular and notable Round-arch and Pointed styles which prevailed in this country during the church-building centuries, or else a regular and notable specimen of one of those styles thrown off by a single effort. Viewed, on the other hand, in connexion with its particular destination, it will present, in imposing dimensions, that collection of architectural features—west front, nave, aisles, transepts, triforium, elerestory, choir, steeple, roof, crypt, &c.—which gives existence to a church, and those ritual appointments which make the building usable. Under this head, the specialty of each plan ought to be recorded in distinctive terms; for instance, whether there are one, two, or three towers or steeples, whether it exhibits single or double transepts (with or without aisles), whether an apsidal or a square east end is found, and so on. To be sure, the man of intelligence will find out all these points for himself by examining the plans; but the object of writing a handbook is to provide intelligence for those who know little, but wish to learn more. Again, there is no cathedral which is not, more or less, full of those decorative and ornamental accretions which sometimes more. Again, there is no cathedral which is not, more or less, full of those decorative and ornamental accretions which sometimes adorn and sometimes deform the structure. These ought to be described and criticised independently of the containing pile. Finally, every cathedral possesses, or did possess, adjunct buildings of the highest interest, and generally of peculiar beauty—the cloisters, the chapter house, the close or convent which served for the residence of the clergy attached, and the Bishop's palace. These are the general heads under which the author of a really scientific handbook to one or to many cathedrals ought to distribute the architectural part of his work. He may vary, more or less, the distribution of his sections, but in treating of the building he ought to lay down and follow an invaring ing of the building he ought to lay down and follow an invari-able rule—and either describe the exterior and the interior, each as a whole before or after the other, or else exhaust each successive section both of exterior and interior under each main division of the structure. It is also important that in his notice (at all events of the interior) he should proceed regularly from west to east with a simultaneous description of the corresponding parts on either side of the building.

But how does our author conduct his visitor round Canterbury Cathedral? Starting from the south door, "we now enter the nave," which is shortly described, including the modern painted glass and monuments, and concluding with the piers of the central lantern. Then the choir is handled at very considerable learth, both its residuance of the central lantern. glass and monuments, and concluding with the pieces of the trail lantern. Then the choir is handled at very considerable length—both its architecture and its fittings and monuments, old and new, being taken promiscuously. Next, the writer tracks back to the north "Martyrdom" transept of the nave in order to describe Becket's murder. From this point the north choir aisle is described, and then the secondary choir transept on that side is noticed, as well as some monuments which, if taken in connexion with the building and not by themselves, ought to have been with the building and not by themselves, ought to have been introduced under the head of the Choir. So we arrive at the "retro-choir," with its Royal monuments and its whilome shrine "retrochoir," with its Royal monuments and its whilome shrine of Becket, which leads to a long parenthesis of details which are interesting enough, but which might more appropriately have been collected into a Becket section. The "Corona"—i. v., the remarkable circular chapel to the extreme east—is then noticed, with the singular blunder perpetuated, that its English name, "Becket's Crown," is a metathesis from the relic which it used to contain, instead of its being simply the translation of that very word "Corona." After this, we find ourselves "Gescending again the south aisle of the retro-choir," and so return in a reverse order, except when continually pulled ourselves "descending again the south aisle of the retro-choir," and so return in a reverse order, except when continually pulled up for monuments of all ages, till we reach "the great south transept," opposite, and corresponding with, the Martyrdom, which had been described so many pages before. The three new painted windows, by Wailes, in that aisle are, however, overlooked. The crypt is then treated; after which, "we may now return to the exterior of the cathedral," when we hear, for the first time, of the two west towers—which form as important a feature inside the nave as they do outside—as well as of the central steeple, of which the piers were noticed many pages previously. Here we miss the protest which ought to have accompanied the notice of the building of that tame copy of the south-west tower at the other angle which ought to have accompanied the notice of the building of that tame copy of the south-west tower at the other angle of the west façade—when, with infinite good intentions, but very deficient taste—the Chapter of twenty-nine years ago, on the absurd ground of uniformity, spent 25,000l. in destroying the old Norman tower, which was the only remnant of Lanfranc's church. Naturally enough, the remains of the conventual buildings, cloister, &c., are next described. The consequence of this perverse system of excursionizing a building is, that the stranger may peruse the whole description of Canterbury Cathedral, and, unless he analyses the plan with unusual acuteness, may leave off with a very vague

or no idea that it is the most noticeable example in England of the or notices that it is the most noticeable example in England of the complexity of double transepts. There is an historical value attaching to this peculiarity, for the early Norman ecclesiastics seem to have imported it from Cluny, which was the centre of church life in the days when Canterbury Cathedral was rebuilt. Once introduced at Canterbury, it spread to several of the cathedrals of England—where alone, of post-basilican churches, with the one exception of Cluny, they are found. The notice cathedrals of England—where alone, of post-basilican churches, with the one exception of Cluny, they are found. The notice of this same peculiarity at Rochester is equally cursory. A more scientific observer would have taken care to bring it out specifically in both cases, and to dwell upon it as one of the points of comparison which exist between the two Kentish cathedrals. Canterbury Cathedral is known all over the world as containing in great abundance some of the finest specimens of the early or mosaic style of painted glass still existing. No work professing to be a handbook to that Church ought to want a systematic description of these art-treasures. In the work before us, however, they are merely noticed incidentally in the course of the peregrination. We could point out similar want of arrangement in the description of other cathedrals. At Chichester, for example, the north and south transepts are consecutively described, after which the visitor is walked up the north choir aisle, across the east end, and down the south choir aisle. But we forbear multiplying instances of what cannot be made clear without ear multiplying instances of what cannot be made clear without

bear multiplying instances of what cannot be made clear without diffuseness and complexity.

As we said before, the work, whatever may be its faults of method, is full of very valuable information, architectural, archaeological, historical, and artistic. Here and there we find a statement which might with advantage be improved on the score of accuracy. For instance, the famous "Patriarchal Chair" of Canterbury, now put away in the south-east transept, is thus described to

described : -

In this transept is now placed the patriarchal chair of Purbeek marble, called "St. Augustine's Chair," traditionally said to be that in which the Pagan Kings of Kent were enthroned, and which, presented by Ethelbert to Augustine, has ever since served as the metropolitical cathedra of Canterbury. It is certainly of high antiquity, but the old throne was of a single block—this is in three pieces; and Purbeck stone was, it is said, unused until long after the time of Augustine. In this venerable chair the Archbishops are still enthroned in person, or by proxy.

The writer does not seem aware that the late eminent French antiquarian, Père Martin, in a short paper read before the Ecclesiological Society, in 1849, and published in the *Ecclesiologist* of that date, has shown, by a comparison between the details of this chair and the tombstone of Stephen Langton, that the thirteenth century is the definite date which must be assigned to it, and

Independamment de ces observations, il y a une harmonic remarkable entre les deux monuments sans le rapport de la simplicité des lignes et de la netteté du trait sans rien qui trahisse dans le trône le manque d'assurance d'un art primitif. Il n'en cet pas ainsi des trônes antiques que l'on connait, comme celui de Charlemagne à Aix la Chapelle, celui d'Augsbourg, celui de Ratis-

By the way, it is much to be desired that this chair (in which, By the way, it is much to be desired that this chair (in which, we may remark, the present Archbishop was enthroned in person) might be reinstated in its proper position—the top-level of the grand flight of steps which terminates the choir—and that the Lord's Table were brought down to its primitive place on the lower landing. It would be equally desirable that the peculiarly vulgar stone reredos—ill copied, in a confectionary spirit, from a piece of late screenwork in the crypt by the cathedral surveyor, somewhere between 1830 and 1840—should be replaced by something more worthy of the locality. This unsatisfactory work is, by the way, passed over by the writer without a word of criticism. In the description of Rochester Cathedral, we find the following, with an accompanying wood-cut: following, with an accompanying wood-cut:-

In the east wall of the south choir-transept is one of the great glories of the cathedral—the chapter-house doorway, of which a cast, very questionably coloured, may be seen in the Palace at Sydenham. It is late Decorated work, and is said to have been erected during the episcopate of Bishop Haymo de Hythe (1319—1334). It was restored by Mr. Cottingham in 1830. The principal figures on either side represent the Jowish Church, leaning on a broken reed, blindfolded, and holding in her right hand the upturned tables of the Law; and the Christian Church, a grave bishop standing erect, with eathedral and crozier.

It is perfectly true that one of the figures was intended to represent the Christian Church; but the notion that this symbol assumed the masculine form of a bishop was a pure piece of blundering ignorance on the part of Mr. Cottingham, who mistook the flowing petitionts of a female torso for a bishop's vestments, and supplied the accessories by his own inventive fancy, forgetting that no bishop or any other person was figured as carrying a church in his hand unless he had himself founded it. Here, as everywhere else, where this familiar symbolism was introduced, the Church, represented as a woman, radiant and exulting, was the counterpart of the dejected and blindfolded synagogue. Instances of this treatment are common in foreign Cathedrals. On the other hand, we very much doubt if, in the whole range of medieval sculpture, one single episcopal statue can be found which was not intended to personify some particular prelate. It is provoking to see the error perpetuated, not only in the Crystal Palace, but in the illustrations of a volume which ought to teach better.

In the description of Winehester Cathedral it is incidentally stated, in a footnote, that—

It seems probable that these three (Ely, Winchester, and Canterbury) are he longest cathedrals that exist, with the acception of St. Peter's, at Rome, he extreme length of which, within the walls, is 607 feet. The Cathedral

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of Milan (the largest of all mediaval cathedrals) covers one-third more ground than Winchester, but is not so long by nearly 100 feet—

the respective dimensions being Winchester, 520, Ely, 560, and Canterbury, 525 feet in length. The writer forgets another English church which, although not a cathedral, is as long as, or longer than, any which hold a Bishop's throne—namely, St. Alban's Abbey, a pile which is not far off being 6co feet long; while Old St. Paul's was about 700 feet in length, and Cluny, 580, and St. Petronius, of Bologna, in Italian Gothic, if completed, would have measured 800 feet long by 525 at the transepts, with an area of 212,000 square feet, of which, however, only 74.000 are built. He might also have observed how closely Seville Cathedral runs Milan Cathedral in superficial area, the measurement of the latter being, according to Mr. Fergusson, 107.782 feet.

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With an equal industry in the collection of materials for the many remaining cathedrals of England and Wales, and a better method in their arrangement, the complete work may become a most valuable addition to our collection of standard architectural books. We observe, by the way, that no notice is promised of St. Paul's. This we think a decided mistake, for the work is entitled a "Handbook of the Cathedrals of England," not merely of those which are of mediæval date and architecture. Moreover, a description of St. Paul's would give the opportunity of re-creating the old church from the engravings which Hollar executed for Dugdale, and which are quite explicit enough to guide a clerer architect, working with present lights, in producing designs of the building of at all events very proximate accuracy. Indeed, we should suggest a complete description of the old church, with plan and illustrations, independent of Wren's Cathedral. Westminster Abbey, too, ought, we think, in memory of Bishop Thirlby, to take brevet rank in the series, even if Bath Abbey stood excluded. It must not be forgotten either that the Isle of Man contains, within Peel Castle, albeit in ruins, the cathedral of one of the suffragans of York.

WHAT ARE CELENTERATA!

ruins, the cathedral of one of the suffragans of York.

THE claims on the knowledge of readers become every day more exorbitant. Popular literature is full of allusions to scientific facts and theories which a few years ago were considered the exclusive property of special students. Even the "handbooks" and "outlines" intended for general readers and docile beginners abound in words of such puzzling obscurity (not to mention the abstruse speculations frequently implied in their very mention), that one would think the English public was made up of pundits, and had been reared in the nursery on the Circle of the Sciences. To take, for example, the little popular Manual on polypes and jelly fish, just published by Mr. Greene—and an admirable Manual too, worthy of everybody's five shillings—what is even an intelligent naturalist to make of its strange title, supposing him to be ignorant of German? What, in the papers of Language, he will ask, can be meant by the sub-Manual on polypes and jelly fish, just published by Mr. Greene—and an admirable Manual too, worthy of everybody's five shillings—what is even an intelligent naturalist to make of its strange title, supposing him to be ignorant of German? What, in the name of Linnæus, he will ask, can be meant by the subkingdom Calenterata? His knowledge of Greek, be it never so extensive, will not carry him far in this fog. It is all very well to talk of a sub-kingdom of "hollow-gutted" animals—but what are they? Impatient at his ignorance of what he is evidently expected to know, since the word is chosen as the title of a Manual, and is not confined to an elaborate paper read before the Linnæan or the Royal Society, our friend turns from the advertisement of Mr. Greene's book, to some of the authorities, hoping to be enlightened. He opens Van der Hooven's Handbook of Zoology; it lears the date of 1856, but it has no Calenterata. He opens Owen's Lectures on the Invertebrata, 1855—not a word there. Gosse's Manual of Marine Zoology, 1856, gives him no hint. Rymer Jones, Dallas, and the Micrographical Dictionary are searched in vain. He sees an article in the last number of the Natural History Review on the "Literature of the Cælenterata," but on consulting it, finds that there also he is supposed to be perfectly familiar with the word. It is clear that the word must be accepted among zoologists, and of course Professor Huxley, who knows all that Continental science produces, has given a full account of it in his lectures; but his lectures not being at hand, our friend remains in darkness. He orders Mr. Greene's Manual, and he does well; but although he sees at once from it that the Cælenterata comprise the Hydrozoa and Actinozoa, yet not a word of explanation is youchsafed. orders Mr. Greene's Manual, and he does well; but although he sees at once from it that the Calenterata comprise the Hydrozoa and Actinozoa, yet not a word of explanation is vouchsafed. He learns nothing as to why these animals are thus specially distinguished, nor by whom, and when, the name was bestowed on them. Mr. Greene concludes that these things are too familiar to need explanation. To persons familiar with German literature on this subject, such knowledge is of course cheap enough; but English readers ought not so recklessly to be credited with it; and when a writer uses a term not universally accepted, the least we demand of him is that he give full explanation, of its least we demand of him is that he give full explanation of its origin. Mr. Greene is prodigal of Greek terms, and niggardly of explanations. It is the only fault we have to find with his book, but a fault it is.

The term Calenterata was proposed by Leuckhart so long ago as 1847. It has been adopted by Victor Carus, in his System der Thierischen Morphologie, by Gegenbauer, in his Vergleichende Anatomie, and is frequently mentioned by other writers; but it is

not adopted by Bronn in his great work now in course of publication (Die Klassen und Ordnungen des Thier-Reichs), so that even in Germany we cannot regard it as finally established. The characters by which the Calenterata may be recognised are these, according to Mr. Greene:—"All are furnished with an alimentary canal, freely communicating with the general or somatic cavity. The substance of the body consists essentially of two separate layers, an outer, or 'ectoderm,' and an inner, or 'endoderm.' These two membranes but careeing the the forward are in general cases. layers, an outer, or 'ectoderm,' and an inner, or 'endoderm.' These two membranes, but especially the former, are in general provided with cilia. Another distinctive characteristic of the calenterata is found in the presence of the peculiar urticating organs, or 'thread-cells,' which are met with so constantly in the integument of these organisms." That they constitute a type distinct from the Protozoa, on the one hand, and from the Echinodermata, on the other, is obvious enough; and not less so is the essential affinity between the two divisions of Hydrozoa and Activaces.

The researches of naturalists and the studies of delighted The researches of naturalists and the studies of delighted amateurs have, of late years, been so largely directed to polypes, actinize, and jelly-fish, that a manual such as Mr. Greene has here produced became indispensable, in order that the immense mass of accumulated material might be registered in some accessible form; and we can assure both naturalists and amateurs that they will find the book very reliable and very serviceable. The matter is well compiled; the explanations are brief yet not meagre; there are many diagrams, and there is a good index. Originality in such works is, of course, not to be thought of; and yet one sees that Mr. Greene is a wo ker, and not a mere compiler. We

meagre; there are many diagrams, and there is a good index. Originality in such works is, of course, not to be thought of; and yet one sees that Mr. Greene is a wo. ker, and not a mere compiler. We should have liked a little more scepticism as to the existence of a nervous system in any of these animals, and a little more decision as to the question of distinct sexes in the actiniæ. That which is true of polypes and of the cerianthus—namely, that both ovaria and spermaria may occur either in the same or in different individuals—is asserted by Mr. Lewes to be equally true of the actiniæ. Is this so? The point is one worth settling. All we know of the development of both elements renders it extremely probable that they may be indifferently developed in the same animal; and all we know of the organization of the actiniæ renders it à priori improbable that the cerianthus should be diæcious, and the crassicornis monæcious. But what says Fact? Probability has only force so long as Fact is silent.

In the main, Mr. Greene has closely followed Professor Huxley. He could not have followed a better guide. And if, in the next edition, he would only bear in mind that even students are anything but familiar with many of the technical terms soprofusely scattered unexplained throughout his pages—and if he would remember, also, that even students are not all Grecians, and that a knowledge of Greek very often lends little or no assistance to one who does not already know the meaning of the term as applied in the special case—he will greatly improve the book. We are perfectly aware of the necessity of technical terms. Science is impossible without a strict nomenclature. But we are also aware that if many writers are misunderstood because they do not attend sufficiently to these exigencies of technical expression, many, also, are thrown aside unread, because they will say nothing in their mother tongue. Every one knows the dreadful kind of mathematical writer who "rushes into the differential calculus on the slightest provocation one clotogist who rushes into Greek, and spuris the plainer and more expressive English, as if his scientific reputation depended on his not saying anything in common language. "Tis a vile fault, and shows a most pitiful ambition." Mr. Greene is not greatly chargeable with it; but he presumes too much upon his reader's knowledge.

JEWITTS RELIQUARY.

THE general antiquary can scarcely help regretting the multiplication of local archæological miscellanies, in which a piece of curious information, so soon as it has been brought to light, is forthwith buried again, and is pretty sure to be immediately forgotten. The wise man said that there was nothing new under the sun; and no one ought to know the truth of this better that they then the sudent who has ever had consider to sarch. under the sun; and no one ought to know the truth of this better than the student who has ever had occasion to search through the back numbers of some abortive magazine or the early volumes of an extinct periodical. The probability is that such an one does not find what he is looking for, thanks to bad indices, or to the absence of any index at all. But he is certain to light upon something or other which proves to him that some antiquarian discovery of his own, upon which he may have piqued himself, was anticipated long ago by somebody else, or that some contemporary controversy is nothing but a crambe repetita. What would not the genealogist give, for example, if there were nothing but the Archwologia, or the Gentleman's Magazine, or Notes and Queries, to examine in the investigation of a pedigree! The heart of the most painstaking bookworm sinks before the task of searching through all the printed serials in which some topographical or archwological fact may perhaps be hidden.

But there is another side to the picture. However much more convenient it might be were every one to communicate his dis-coveries or his speculations to one common literary organ, we may

^{*} A Manual of the Sub-kingdom Calenterata. By Joseph Reay Greene, Professor of Natural History in Queen's College, Cork. London: Longmans and Co. 1861.

The Reliquary: a Depository of Precious Relics, Legendary, Biographical, and Historical. Edited by Llewellynn Jewitt, F.S.A. London: Smith. Derby: Bemrose. 1861.

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bequite sure that, without the stimulus of rivalry and local epprif
de corps, the greater part of such fragmentary information would
be wholly lost to the world. Many a man will send an epitaph,
or an oid ballad, or a blazon of arms, or an extract from a diary,
to some local magazine edited by an acquaintance of his own who
would never dream of corresponding with the antiquarian authorities of Somerset House, or with Mr. Sylvanus Urban. So that we
must make up our minds to tolerate a host of ephemeral topograhical journals for the sake of the wide area from which they draw
their matter, and in the hope that the best part of their contents
will be gradually absorbed into more permanent and more acessible collections. Doubtless, they perform an useful function in
their way, and they deserve a kindly welcome so long as they are
sensibly conducted, and especially if they are well indexed. Nor
must it be forgotten that their local circulation tends to excite
and sustain a most wholesome interest in the discovery and the
preservation of the antiquities of each particular district.

We have been led to make these remarks by the appearance of
the first volume of a new antiquarian miscellany—the Reliquary—
conducted by Mr. Llewellynn Jewitt, of Derby. This publication,
indeed, although at first sight there may seem to be no need for it,
appears to have more promise of vitality and special usefulness
than most of its fellows. For we notice that the large majority
of the contributors to its pages are not names which we find elsewhere. This is the best evidence that a fresh spring has been
tapped. Again, it so happens that the district which Mr. Jewitt's
of the contributors to its pages are not names which we find elsewhere the instance of the mark of the specimen now lying before one
take we have "the Long-armed Duke," meaning, of course, a
Duke of Devonshire, committed almost for the first time to print.
The lave Mr. Bateman, whose book on British and Saxon tumuli
we reviewed a few w

make full use of the valuable materials here collected. We observe also that the general editing is sometimes careless. More than one considerable error is passed over unnoticed. We may now proceed to give our readers some idea of the contents of this interesting volume. The editor's own contributions are, perhaps, the most valuable, as they are certainly the most elaborate. Three separate papers on the Brank, the Cucking Stool, and the Pillory, seem to exhaust the whole subject of those cruel, but happily disused, methods of punishment. Most people know that scolds used sometimes to be led round the town bridled with a metal framework, which embraced the head, while a metal gag, which was in some cases sharpened and furnished with spikes. with a metal framework, which embraced the head, while a metal gag, which was in some cases sharpened and furnished with spikes, was forced into the mouth. But few are aware that this custom was all but universal over England. Mr. Jewitt patriotically argues that his own Derbyshire must have had fewer shrews than most of the neighbouring counties, since it affords a single example of the brank, that at Chesterfield, whereas in Cheshire no less than thirteen specimens are still preserved. He suggests also that the custom, which it appears was never strictly legal, was of Scotch origin. The so-called "witches' bridle" of Forfar, by which the wretched old women condemned for witchcraft were led to execution, is the most cruel of all the branks here engraved, with the exception of one at Stockport; for we take it that the instruments of torture preserved at Ludlow and Worcester were intended for still more severe punishments, such as compression of the head or branding of the cheeks. The brank is here stated to have been used within the last forty years at Bolton le Moors

and at Altrincham; and the full particulars are given of its application to one Ann Runcorn at Congleton so late as 1824. The Ducking-stool, or Cucking-stool (for these names came to be used indiscriminately), was even more common than the Brank. This punishment, which is stated to be still legal, can claim great antiquity; for it is mentioned in Domesday Book as in use at Chester, under the unsavoury name of the "Cathedra Stercoris." The immersion in the water was, it would seem, a later addition; the original punishment having been only a shameful, but painless, kind of pillory. The latest instances of the use of the ducking-stool discovered by Mr. Jewitt were at Chesterfield about seventy years ago, and at Leominster in 1809 and 1817. These papers are appropriately followed up by one on the Pillory, in which the author shows by woodcuts almost every possible form which this instrument could assume, while his letterpress is full of curious illustrative anecdotes and extracts. The late Mr. Bateman's communications to the Reliquary are very varied in their nature. He begins with a description of the Anglo-Saxon and Roman coins minted at Derby with which his own collection is enriched. This subject is subsequently taken up by Mr. Richard Sainthill, a numismatist who has made the mintage of Exeter his special study. Mr. Bateman's next paper is a notice of an almost forgotten Derbyshire worthy, Christopher Fulwood, the royalist, of Middleton next Youlgreave. It was he who raised a regiment of cleven hundred miners as a body guard for the King. The story of his death is touching. He was shot in November, 1643, by a party sent against him by Sir William Gell, of Hopton, just as he was about to hide himself in a cave near his house in the picturesque valley of the Bradford. The spot is called Fulwood's Rock to this day. The wounded man was hurried off as a prisoner to Lichfield; but he died on the journey, at that Calton in Staffordshire, of which the local proverb says—

. . . Calton under Weever-Where God cometh never.

Fulwood's castle was not destroyed till about 1720. His only daughters ended their lives in poverty in Fulwood's Rents, in London, which had formerly belonged to their family, and which perpetuates their name. Another very curious sketch by Mr. Bateman describes some dispersed Derbyshire libraries. Here we find that many of Bishop Juxon's books found their way into the possession of the Rev. Henry Lomas, a vicar of Hartington, in the last century. Books from the library of Charles Cotton, of Beresford Hall, the friend of Isaak Walton, are still, it is said, occasionally to be picked up in the same neighbourhood. And two other considerable libraries have been dispersed in the same county—that of John Ashe, of Chesterfield, at the end of the seventeenth century, and that of Captain Morgan, of Stanton Woodhouse, who died in 1774, at the age of one hundred.

Among the other more notable papers in the volume we may mention a sketch of the life of one John Gratton, a self-taught man, born at Monyash, who became a kind of apostle among the early Quakers. A congregation of this sect, no doubt founded by him, still exists, we believe, in that remote village. The ballads of the Peak country are discussed by Mr. J. M. Gutch and Mr. William Bennett. The former adopts the late Mr. Hunter's views of the identity of Robin Hood, gives an analysis of the famous "Lytel Geste," and extends the "forest," that is, the wild, unenclosed country in which the outlaw performed his exploits, so as to include the whole of the north of Derbyshire as well as Nottinghamshire. Mr. Bennett, besides recovering some old ballads, attempts the more ambitious task of embodying local traditions in new ones of his own composition. He also describes some of the camps and barrows which may still be traced in the neighbourhood of Chapel-en-le-Frith. Visitors to Buxton are seldom aware that a very perfect Roman camp exists on the north-western spur of Combs Moss, in which the vullum and the fossa and the pratorian gate are still to be traced. And a still

It is an artificially formed valley, averaging in width 40 paces, or \$5 Druid cubits, and 1300 paces, or 2228 Druid cubits, in length. It is in a great measure cut out of the side of a hill to a depth of from 10 to 30 feet; but where it is not so it is enclosed on both sides with banks of earth. At the east end of the course is the goal, and at the west end are the remains of the meter and other tunuli, and also several other valleys of smaller dimensions than the Rhedagua, where it is probable the chariots and horses not actually occupied in the race were placed, until their turn arrived to engage in the noble strife.

Other British remains near Hathersage, including camps, rocking-stones, circles, and the so-called "rock-basins," are described by Sir Gardner Wilkinson. The anastatic illustration to this paper is scarcely worthy of its place, and the same may be said of other plates in the volumes, which are printed by this cheap but unsatisfactory process. The woodcuts, on the contrary, are excellent. Before concluding this notice, we may mention an instructive paper by Mr. J. M. Gresley, on the Ancient Remains of Newstead Priory. The rest of the contributions are less important, though they range from natural history—which is now not uncommonly found, for convenience sake, allied with archaeology—to scraps of biography, extracts from registers, and the other like fragments, which form the ordinary "padding" of an antiquarian miscellany. Mr.

Jewitt may take credit to himself for having supplied, in his well-named *Reliquary*, the want which seems really to have existed of a convenient receptacle for the fugitive "folk-lore" of the North Midland Counties.

DOMESTIC ANNALS OF SCOTLAND.

Second Notice.

Contrast in material progress between the Protestant and Roman Catholic portions of Europe. He pointed out how the Northern nations, where the principles of the Reformation triumphed, have steadily advanced ever since that era, in wealth, knowledge, and power, while Italy and Spain, the old leaders of civilization, have actually receded. We may probably think that the relation between Protestantism and civilization is that of mere coincidence, not of cause and effect; and that the same frame of mind which led the Teutonic nations to abjure Rome tends also to make them achieve freedom and wealth. But however this may be, the wonder still remains, how it came to pass that Scotland—not the last country to begin the work of Reformation, and one of the first to establish a Protestant Church and to root Protestant decrines in the heart of the people—nevertheless remained for more than a century in a state of comparative burbarism, through which we can hardly discern the first faint signs of approaching civilization. This backwardness may be traced to various causes, among which the position of Scotland during the seventeenth century, as a dependent kingdom, whose monarch had other interests to consult than those of his northern subjects, may well be reckoned. The first great element of civilization, the supremacy of law over all individual interests, was not attainable as long as the ties of kindred remained paramount to every other obligation; and the constant habit of disregarding the law in comparison with one set of private feelings led of course to violations of it whenever revenge, interest, or any other feeling prompted. But then religion itself was perhaps not a little to blame. Scotch Protestantism, which was seen in its full and triumphant development during the reign of the Covenanters, was not, in fact, the truth which (to use the Scripture phrase) makes me free. It was a narrow and bitter sectarianism, which disregarded the charitable teaching of the New Testsment, and considered the stern Jewish law and

though it must be allowed that several improvements in social matters date from the time of the ascendancy of the latter party during the reign of Charles II.

Mr. Chambers, under the date of 1600, gives a short survey of the manners of the people, under the heads of Superstition, Observance of Sunday, Ecclesiastical Discipline, Customs, Public Economy, &c., and at the close of his second volume remarks on the slight progress that had been made up to 1688. We have, therefore, his authority for regarding the whole period, 1560-1688, as having the same general character in these respects. We will collect, as best we can, various traits of the Scottish character, as exemplified in the facts given in Mr. Chambers first two volumes, and then briefly show how sudden and rapid was the improvement after the Union with England. Some remarks are quoted, under the dates of 1502 and 1661, made by intelligent English travellers; and they agree completely in a low estimate of Scotch habits and modes of life, speaking contemptuously of the food, dress, houses, &c., of the people, in comparison with England. And the general ignorance corresponded with the rudeness of their manners and way of living. The universal belief in witcheraft was perhaps fostered by the prevalent religion, which made this belief a part of the creed, and the punishment of witches a fundamental duty. And indeed, even in England, the last witch prosecution was not until the eighteenth century. But the want of scientific knowledge among the most learned of Scotchmen was deplorable. In 1681, seventy years after the time of Napier of logarithm fame, a learned judge, in speaking of the comet of the previous year, estimates the length of its tail at "near 3000 miles, because it extends over sixty degrees, and each degree is sixty miles;" and he gravely discusses the ques ion whether comets prognosticate wars and desonation—concluding, at last, that they do no harm, "further than by their natural effects ininfecting the air, so as tooccasion sterility, pestilen

Dossible, every species of knowledge but their own narrow teneta. The steady and determined persecution directed by them against the Quakers especially deserves our notice, because a prominent victim was Walter Scott, of Raeburn, ancestor of the novelist. He, like many others, was heavily fined, imprisoned for several years, and had his children taken away from his custody, and was fortunate in not being forced into exile, like some members of the sect. We in England are rather apt to assume that, in any religious contest, the Roman Catholics must needs be in the wrong, and the persecutors; but to read these annals, with the perpetual records of severities directed against them, is enough to restore our judicial impartiality. And, as Mr. Chambers well observes, "inthe external conformity which was forced upon many—so many that only sixty avowed Papists were thought to be left in Scotland—we cannot doubt that there was involved a hypocrisy which would be bitterly felt—always the more bitterly where there was an upright and honourable spirit—and which would, in the long run, have the most demoralizing effects." In the early days of Presbyterianism (1576), we find the General Assembly recommending to the clergy "that their whole habit be of grave colour, as black, russet, sad-grey, or sad-brown; and their wives to be subject to the same order." Sumptuary laws were not unknown in that age in other countries; but they were directed against wearing costly dress. It was the Puritan spirit which could forbid women from wearing any bright and cheerful colour.

The Scotch view of the proper mode of celebrating Sunday—or, as they think needful to call it, the Sabbath—is too well known for us to remark more about it than that it dates from the Reformation; but it is well for the comfort and cheerfulness of the country that time has tamed down the first fierceness of their zeal in other matters of a kindred nature. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries every demonstration of mirth or natural good spirits, every amusement, whether possibly harmful or entirely innocent, was considered as a sort of sin, and to be checked by ecclesiastical discipline. The punishment for offences of this kind, which was ultimately excommunication, was terrible in its consequences, which are described as follows in a contemporary record:—

Whaseever incurs the danger thereof is given over in thir days by the ministers, in presence of the haill people assembled at the kirk, in the hands of Satan, as not worthy of Christian society, and therefore made odious to all men, that they should eschew his company, and refuse him all kind of hospitality; and the person thus continuing in refusal by the space of a haill year, his goods are decerned to appertain to the King, sae lung as the disobedient lives.

The result of this mistaken severity was proportional, not to the good intentions of the Kirk, but to the unnatural strain on human nature. Legitimate recreation being forbidden as crime, the people, driven to secreey in enjoying even the most innocent pleasures, were not wiser than their leaders in distinguishing real infractions of the moral law from more harmless enjoyments; and Mr. Chambers sums up his review of the subject thus:—
"The Kirk Session Records of the period must be held as revealing a very low state of morals, particularly among the humbler classes of the people." We can hardly doubt that much of the drunkenness and immorality for which Scotland is unpleasantly notorious, must be traced to the unnatural severity of the Presbyterians. In remarkable contrast to this is the humanity with which the Spaniards cast on shore from the wreck of the Armada were treated, and the universal compassion for countrymen in misfortune, evinced by large and repeated subscriptions to ransom or help Scotchmen who had been captured by Salee and Algerine pirates.

and Algerine pirates.

The Scotch have always been addicted to seeking their fortune abroad. In the times before Mr. Chambers' work commences, the Scotch archers of the French kings were sufficiently famous; and those who went from Scotland to serve under Guetavus Adolphus were numerous enough to furnish a whole brigade, besides many officers to other corps. Mr. Chambers gives a complete list of Gustavus' Scotch officers, among whom many, especially Alexander Leslie, subsequently Earl of Leven, learned military skill afterwards useful to their country. And so, on the other hand, one of the Gordons of Gight—a house noted as zealous Roman Catholics—entered the Imperial service, and was concerned in the death of Wallenstein. Mr. Chambers mentions this gentleman only in a note, as a son of whom Scotland had no great reason to be proud; but we wonder at not finding even an allusion to the exiled Jacobite gentlemen whose exploits in the French service won them more honour than reward. The old Scotch ballads chronicle many warlike exploits of Scotch ships in the times before the union of the two crowns, and Sir Andrew Wood, admiral under James III., is perhaps the oldest naval hero that Great Britain can boast; but we were not prepared to find a Scotch sailor win fame and wealth in the Mediterranean. Captain George Scott, in 1645, built a large ship at Inverness, with which he sailed to the Mediterranean, and entered the Venetian service:—

His brother William became Vice-Admiral to the Venetian fleet, and the bane and terror of Mussulman navigators. Whether they had galleys, galleons, or great war-ships, it was all one to him. He set upon all slike, saying, the more they were the more he should kill, and the stronger the rencounter should be, the greater should be his honour, and the richer his prize. He oftentimes so scourged the Archipelago of the Mussulmans, that the Ottoman Power, and the very gates of Constantinople, would quake at the report of his vistories.

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During the reign of Charles II. a few manufactures and useful institutions of modern civilization began to take root in Scotland. Various mines of gold, silver, copper, coal, had been worked, or at least tried, during the previous century, but with very little success; and the want of scientific skill in conducting the operations caused great waste of money. "I took 20,0001 out of that hole," said a proprietor, walking over his estate and pointing to an old mine, "and put it all back into this." In our own day, geology might have saved him from wasting all his profits on a hopeless second experiment. Soon after the Restoration, the Scottish Post-Office was fairly established, with a post to Aberdeen twice a-week and once to Inverness, "wind and weather serving," and to other places in like proportion; but we may observe of how little importance it was considered, when a cavalier who had served under Montrose was made Postmaster-General, as the only place they could find for him. Mr. Chambers' pages abound with notices of stage-coaches being established between Edinburgh and Leith or Glasgow, but it was long before they were established in constant operation. The first speculators were unable to make the schemes pay, in spite of subsidies from the cities to which their coaches ran. Similarly, news letters were now and then started in Edinburgh, but generally brought the publisher into trouble with the Government; and it was not until the period of the Union that a newspaper was able to attain more than an ephemeral duration of weeks or months. Attempts were made in several places to establish iron and glass works, woollen and linen manufactures, and other useful arts, but they none of them really flourished, except the soap works at Leith, until after the turning-point of Scotland's civilization. Within fifty years of the accession of William III., in spite of the troubles attendant on the continuance of the Jacobite party twice culminating in a rebellion, Scotland could hardly have been recognised for the same

THE AMERICAN CRISIS CONSIDERED.

If, in the new career which is opening before them, the Confederate States of America should desire the services of a member of the Inner Temple and a D.C.L. of the University of Oxford, they would do well to apply at No. 5, Pump-court. The present crisis has just been "considered" in that hotbed of special pleaders by Mr. Charles Lempriere; and, as one good turn deserves another, the services of so zealous a partisan should not be allowed to go unrewarded. His talents might be utilized in more ways than one by the "gameoock" State of South Carolina. It is his duty, as an advocate, to ignore the strong points of his adversary's case; and, judged by this criterion of merit, Mr. Lempriere appears to be in a fair way for professional success. But this is not his only recommendation. He also possesses a knowledge of the art of book-making, and might help to fill up the gap in Southern literature which the possible exclusion of Northern writers may create. If his language is not always quite grammatical, we may at any rate assume that it will be as correct as Mr. Lincoln's; and if it is sometimes more obscure, it may thus afford an opportunity to the Southern Confederacy of beating the Northern President in his own line. To be sure, Mr. Lempriere lacks the qualifications of an historiau, and is not remarkable for the lucid arrangement of his subject; but the latter quality may be acquired by practice, and the former will not be wanted in a land "where all things have become new." But he must abstain from giving us double versions of them, as at pp. 134 and 138 of the work now before us—where we are favoured with two accounts of Mr. Clay's Compromise Tariff, the date of which is assigned to two distinct years, both for its commencement and its prospective termination.

When the present disastrous civil war first broke out in America, it was necessary to put Englishmen on their guard against the extravagant opinions of the New York journals and the wild fanaticism of Abolitionist orators. No one at all familiar with t

neutrality. We refused to be even ruffled by the threatened invasion of Canada. We continue to this day to respect the imperfect blockade of the Southern ports. While the storm was brewing, we did all in our power to deprecate the fratricidal contest; but when it had once fairly set in, we did not wait to be taught by the battles of Bull's Run or Springfield that the reannexation of the South was not to be effected by force. The intelligence of each successive mail has served to vindicate our original position. The miserable feebleness of the Federal Rxecutive contrasted forcibly with the firm and resolute bearing of the Jefferson Davis Ministry. We were amused, in common with all the world, at the abortive issue of republican bluster, which after threatening at times to scourge balf Europe, only succeeded at length in "whipping" itself. We demurred to the wisdom of the statesmanship which laid down the proposition that privateering was piracy—a proposition which the Washington Cabinet knew it would never dare to carry out. The latest developments of this unhappy contest have been even less creditable to the North than its earlier stages. The detention of the magistrates of Washington and Baltimore in a military prison, in defiance of writs of habeas corpus, was in keeping with the audacity which waits on conscious weakness; but it was an act which in every free country must meet with unqualified reprobation. It is, however, one thing to be alive to the blunders and follies of the North, and another to seek to further the interest of the South by slovenly arguments and vulgar personalities.

Mr. Lempriere approaches the consideration of his subject with the aid of an entirely new entered of cridence. We is realized to the late to the limiters with the aid of an entirely new entered of cridence.

which in every free country must neces with analysis bation. It is, however, one thing to be alive to the blunders and follies of the North, and another to seek to further the interest of the South by slovenly arguments and vulgar personalties.

Mr. Lempriere approaches the consideration of his subject with the aid of an entirely new canon of evidence. He is perhaps singular amongst lawyers in regarding doubt as an indication of dishonesty. "The curious apparent vacillation of ideas which has prevailed is, to say the least, suspicious that the facts have been made up to support them on one side or the other." This sentiment, which occurs in the greface, is, we venture to think, as strange as the language in which it is conveyed. Surely a member of the Inner Temple, of the least possible experience, does not require to be told that one of the most ordinary characteristics of successful falsehood is its extreme plausibility, and that plausibility over conduces to "vacillation of ideas." But let this pass as merely prefatory matter, and, therefore, perhaps of no particular consequence. Let us leave the threshold and enter the shrine. Here is Mr. Lempriere's offering to the South in the shape of a constitutional argument for secession. It is worth looking at. "The right of resistance," he tells us, "resides in the legislative action of the States, whether in each separately, or in the whole combined in Senate and Congress' (b. 2). Now, we confess it appears to us to make a considerable difference which alternative we are to accept. Mr. Lempriere must elect between the two. As the Senate and Congress together represent the Federal Government, at least for purposes of internal administration, we should have no difficulty in answering the question whether the Federal Government can resist itself, could any one be found folish enough to ask it. Mr. Lempriere, therefore, must either take his stand on an empty truism, or we must believe him to mean, as he elsewhere expresses it, that "the action of the Federal Government

The American Crisis Considered. By Charles Lempriere, D.C.L., of the Inner Temple, Law Fellow of St. John's College, in the University of Oxford. London: Longmans. 1861.

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source of all power, and that to them must inevitably be referred as arbiters, every question of public policy, is the only tangible principle to be found. Until then the action of Government has been so indorsed and ratified it wants its proper stamp(!) and upon that, and that alone, depends the legality and sufficiency of its action. (pp. 4, 5.)

Until then the action of Government has been so indorsed and ratified it wants its proper stamp() and upon that, and that alone, depends the legality and sufficiency of its action. (pp. 4, 5.)

If Mr. Lempriere had attended to the distinction above mentioned between internal and external sovereignty, he might have dispensed with another misplaced argument. He objects against the Federal Government that it has taken no steps to notify to foreign States the position of the two contending parties. But to have done so would have been inconsistent with its own assumption that the Union still exists. The Federal Government claims, however absurdly, to be dealing with rebels; and as foreign nations are not at all implicated in the internal affairs of each other, any such notification as is suggested would have been as much out of place in the present instance as on the occasion of the annexation of Texas or the admission of California into the catalogue of States. But while we venture to question the constitutional right of secession, we are very far from acquiescing in all the doctrines that President Lincoln has laid down. We need not fly in the face of reason because we do not choose to sympathize with the Abolitionists of New England or the Protectionist authors of the Morrill tariff. Not on such flimsy pretexts as Mr. Lempriere adduces do we recognise the secession as complete. First non debuit, factum valet. The line which separates rebels from belligerents is always difficult to draw, but it has been sufficiently defined by events. It is said that a victory or two ought to make no difference, for that wrong triumphant is still wrong; but that we should be guided by the circumstances of each particular case is a proposition dictated by all historical precedent, and confirmed by every humane consideration. As we said on a former occasion, of which Mr. Lempriere is good enough in very flattering terms to remind us, "a time will come in the history of every Government, when to reclaim seceding members will cease to

ment of the present struggle in the field, the isolated condition of the Northern farmers, and the commercial engagements of the Northern manufacturers, have left no room to either class for the motives or the machinery of aggrandizement. A retrospective glance will make this clear at once. Since the formation of the Union, it will be found that the Presidency has been held forty-eight years by slaveholders of the North—that, on an average, the offices of the principal Secretaries of State (of War, of the Interior, and of the Treasury), together with the Postmaster and Attorney-Generalships, have been under the control of the slaveholders two-thirds of the time—that five slaveholding Presidents have been re-elected, while non-slaveholders have never held office for more than a single term. We do not see, then, how Mr. Lempriere can talk with propriety of "Northern aggression." We are equally at a loss to understand why he has favoured us, "by the kindness of J. P. Kettell, Esq.," with such elaborate details of the banking and jobbing system which prevails in New York. If the same hazardous game is not played "down South," it is simply because the North happens to be the seat of commerce. Wherever the operations of trade are extensively carried on, there will always be found an army of speculators whose line of business is somewhat questionable. But even if there were anything special in the circumstances, they would hardly throw light on the present "isis." It will be a long time before the Southern planters will ar. w bills on their factors at New York or Boston, or before Northern g ods are sold, as heretofore, to the South on credit. We are, there, ore, we confess, little interested to learn what becomes of the "non." of the mercantile people," or that, as Mr. Lempriere expresses u "th a curious redundancy of words, "at the same time the value or alls drawn against cotton is depressed, at the same time the value or alls drawn against cotton is depressed, at the same time the value or alls drawn against cotto

(p. 82).

After a careful perusal of Mr. Lempriere's book, we do not think he need be under any apprehension lest "his judg-ment should have been warped by the outrageous advocacy adopted by the panegyrists of the North" (p. 131). But he ought not to assume that his readers are equally impregnable. He should remember that the faith of the weaker brethren is in

danger of being disturbed by such copious specimens from Northern partisans as he has incorporated into his pages. However, coûte qui coûte, Messrs. Helper, Motley, and Ellison are all laid under contribution. But why does Mr. Lempriere gire us duplicate extracts from the last, as at pp. 103 and 129—either mutilating his opponent's language in the one place, or expanding it in the other? We can stand a good deal in the inverted-comma style, but we confess we do not like garbled quotations. Mr. Motley is treated much more summarily. He is, it would seem, a mere place-hunter. His assertion (if it be his) "that the Republican party, in determining to set bounds to the extension of slavery, had no designs, secret or avowed, against slavery within the States," is "a patent, palpable, and wicked lie;" and "the noble and generous desire of all parties in the Free States to vindicate the sullied honour of their flag" is "mere bunkum to get him the loaves and fishes which we see Mr. Motley has posted off to Washington to secure." As for Mr. Helper—or, as Mr. Lempriere calls him, in a fit of demonstrative irony, "this Helper"—he is disposed of by a personal allusion which we do not affect to understand. We do not concur in the sentiments of Mr. Helper's book, but we do not see that his arguments are impeached by stigmatizing him as "the refugee from Raleigh, North Carolina, under circumstances which he would do well to atone (!) by repaying his employer, the bookseller, the 300 dollars of his he took by mistake." What are these "circumstances" which Mr. Helper has "to atone?" After this piece of Southern scandal, we are not surprised to find Mr. Lempriere identifying him-elf with his client, and saying, at p. 97, "History will decide whether the resistance is 'rebellion, treason, plunder,' and we do not fear her verdict." The only way in which Mr. Lempriere's volume is likely to do service is in bringing out the weak points of the Northern politicians and their short-sighted protective policy. In the two concluding chapt

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the world.

The Directors have been enabled to accure the whole Property at a valuation, the Proprietor receiving the whole of the purchase-money in Shares.

In all courtracts for building Ships, it is usual to have the payments made according as the work proceeds, and to retain the security of the vessel until linal payment is made; and it is on this account that a Capital of 210,000, with proper management, will be ample calculated upon all estimates for work undertaken, the Subscribers may confidently satisfact Lividends of at least 20 per cent, per annum on the Capital invested.

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This show will be returned if no allutimate in made to the applicable.

THE ROODEE IRON SHIP BUILDING COMPANY,

NOTICE OF CLOSING.—Applications for Shares in this Company must be sent in to the Secretary, on or before Wednesday, the 18th instant.

By order of the Board,

13, Gresham House, Old Broad-street, London, E.C.

Bit November, 1881.

H. W. PEARSON, Secretary.

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THE STANDAED has transacted a larger amount of Business during the last fifteen years than any other Office.

Total £7,455,085 2 4

'This is all first-class home Business, the Assurances being almost entirely, as stated in the Proposals for Assurance, effected in connexion with Family Provisions and Marriago Settlements.

The REVENUE of the Company was in 1845 £103,371 3 5 , 1860 , 1856 , 1860 £160,151 16 4 ... £287.450 1 9 £364,161 13 7

The Funds at the date of last investigation (1860) amounted to £1,868.893 [9s. 44], showing an increase of £700,600 since 1852; while during the same period the CLAIMS under Policies in consequence of death were upwards of Halfa Million Sterline.

SPECIAL NOTICE.

ADVANTAGE OF ASSULTAND BEFORE INTERNATIONAL A Policy effected before 15th November next will not only participate in the 7th Division of Fronts to be made in 15th, but will secure one year's additional Bonus at all future Divisions over Policies of inter date.

THE PROPITS OF THE COMPANY have been divided on six occasions—in 1835, 1840, 1848, 1850, 1855, and 1800, when large addi-tions were made to Policies under the peculiar mode of division adopted by the Company, which is essentially Tuntine, affording very important advantages to Assurers.

EXAMPLES OF BONUS ADDITIONS. Date of Policy. Sums in Policies. Bonus Additions to 1860. Sums in Policies. Additions. £ 8, 2115 0 1790 0 1515 0 1302 10 1753 10 1074 0 Nov. 15, 1830 1835 1840 1845 1855

NEXT DIVISION IN 1865 AND EVERY FIVE YEARS AFTERWARDS.

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The Gurporation have always silver it he Assured to serve in the Militia, Yeomanzy, or Volunteer Curps, within the United Kingdom, free of charge.

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July last, with the option to the discovery of the per cent. Per as a state of the per cent. Per as a state of the per cent. Per cent. The per cent. Per cent.

Company's Offices, 3, New Broad-street, London, E.C. September 10th, 1831.

THOS. R. WATT, Secretary.

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Centry Powder, Curry Sauce, and Oriental Pickle, may be obtained from all Sauce
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